DOCUMENT RESUME

ED 276 131 EA 018 975

AUTHOR	Marshall, D. G., Ed.; Newton, E. H., Ed.
TITLE	The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Commonwealth Developing Areas. A Symposium (Barbados, August 26-30, 1985).
SPONS AGENCY	Caribbean Society of Educational Administrators (Barbados).; Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, Armidale (Australia).
PUB DATE	Aug 85
NOTE	302p.; Also sponsored by the Faculty of Education, University of the West Indies. For individual papers, see EA 018 976-989.
PUB TYPE	Information Analyses (070) -- Collected Works - Conference Proceedings (021)
EDRS PRICE	MF01/PC13 Plus Postage.
DESCRIPTORS	*Administrator Education; Administrator Qualifications; Administrator Role; *Developing Nations; *Educational Administration; Educational Needs; Foreign Countries; Influences; Management Development; National Programs; Organizational Theories; Sex Bias
IDENTIFIERS	British Commonwealth; Canada; *Caribbean; India

ABSTRACT

This document comprises 14 presented papers and related conference materials from a symposium on the Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas with Emphasis on the Commonwealth Caribbean, conducted in August, 1985. The presentations were divided into three basic areas. Four papers addressed the first area, "Educational Administration in General": "Education and Dependence: Implications for Educational Administration in Latin America and the Caribbean," by Benno Sander; "Assessing Effectiveness in the Field of Professional Preparation Programmes in Educational Administration," by William Mulford; "The Place of Theory in the Training of Educational Administrators," by Tony Riffel; and "The Instructional Process in Educational Administration: The Case Methods Approach," by Gwendoline Williams. In the second area, "Educational Administration in Developing Areas," three papers were presented: "Graduate Programmes in Education Administration in Developing Areas," by Jotham Olembo; "Learning Resources in the Training of Third World Educational Administrators," by Susie Rodwell; and "Women in Educational Administration in Third World Countries," by Usha Nayar. The third area of focus was "Educational Administration in Developing Areas: Commonwealth Caribbean"; seven papers were presented in this area: "Towards a Gender-Inclusive Theory of Educational Administration for the Third World," by Lynn Davies; "Critical Issues in the Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas," by Earle H. Newton; "The Delivery of Professional Preparation and Development Programmes for School Administrators: The Commonwealth Caribbean," by David G. Marshall; "Nature and Needs in the Field of Educational Administration in the Commonwealth Caribbean," by Errol Miller; "Managing Systems in the Caribbean," by Rudolph Goodridge; "Management Information Systems as a Tool for Educational Administrators in the Commonwealth Caribbean," by Jack Heuvel; and

"Sociological Issues in the Preparation of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas with Special Reference to the Caribbean," by Anthony Layne. This conference report also includes a preface by Marshall, one of the symposium's coordinators; an opening address by Billie A. Miller, the Minister of Education and Culture for Barbados; and appendixes consisting of materials announcing the symposium and the symposium's schedule. (PGD)

****
* Reproductions supplied by EDRS are the best that can be made *
* from the original document. *
****

ED276131

The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Commonwealth Developing Areas

A SYMPOSIUM

Sponsored by

the

CARIBBEAN SOCIETY OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

in

association

with

THE COMMONWEALTH COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

and

THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION, U.W.I., CAVE HILL

on

The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas with emphasis on the Commonwealth Caribbean

from

August 26 - 30, 1985

Papers will be presented by speakers from across the Commonwealth and Latin America (Africa, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Caribbean, India and U.K.)

U.S. DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION
Office of Educational Research and Improvement
EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)

☆ This document has been reproduced as received from the person or organization originating it.

☐ Minor changes have been made to improve reproduction quality.

• Points of view or opinions stated in this document do not necessarily represent official OERI position or policy.

For further information and application forms please get in contact with

E. H. NEWTON

Symposium Co-ordinator
Faculty of Education
U.W.I., Cave Hill
Tel. No. 425-1462

"PERMISSION TO REPRODUCE THIS MATERIAL HAS BEEN GRANTED BY

D. G. Marshall

TO THE EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES INFORMATION CENTER (ERIC)."

D. G. Marshall and E. H. Newton, Conference Co-Directors and Editors

EA 018975

INDEX

PAGE

Preface iii

Opening Address: The Hon. Billie A. Miller, Minister of Education and Culture, Barbados, WI 1

I. Educational Administration in General 6

Education and Dependence: Implications for Educational Administration in Latin America and the Caribbean, Benno Sander - Brazil 7

Assessing Effectiveness in the Field of Professional Preparation Programmes in Educational Administration, William Mulford - Australia 29

The Place of Theory in the Training of Educational Administrators, Tony Riffel - Canada 53

The Instructional Process in Educational Administration. The Case Methods Approach, Gwendoline Williams - Trinidad..... 74

II. Educational Administration in Developing Areas 103

Graduate Programmes in Education Administration in Developing Areas, Jotham Olembo - Kenya 104

Learning Resources in the Training of Third World Educational Administrators, Susie Rodwell - London 115

Women in Educational Administration in Third World Countries Usha Nayar - India 152

III. Educational Administration in Developing Areas: Commonwealth Caribbean 176

Towards a Gender-Inclusive Theory of Educational Administration for the Third World, Lynn Davies - England 177

Critical Issues in the Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas, Earle H. Newton - Barbados 192

The Delivery of Professional Preparation and Development Programmes for School Administrators: The Commonwealth Caribbean, Dave Marshall- Canada 203

Nature and Needs in the Field of Educational Administration in the Commonwealth Caribbean, Errol Miller - Jamaica..... 225

Managing Systems in the Caribbean, Rudolph Goodridge - Barbados 238

Management Information Systems as a Tool For Educational Administrators in the Commonwealth Caribbean, Jack Heuvel - Canada 249

Sociological Issues in the Preparation of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas with Special Reference to the Caribbean, Anthony Layne - Barbados 267

Appendix 1 280

Appendix 2 284

The Caribbean Society for Educational Administrators CARSEA, Barbados 289

PREFACE

One fall day in 1982, Earle Newton and I met for lunch with Robin Farquhar, President of C.C.E.A. (Commonwealth Council for Educational Administrators), to discuss an idea we had. At the time, I was an Associate Professor of Educational Administration at the University of Manitoba, struggling to create a special program in Educational Administration for students from developing areas. Earle was Senior Lecturer in Educational Administration at the University of the West Indies, on leave for the year to research at the University of Manitoba and was struggling to put together a research endevour in the area of educational administration in developing areas. Both of us had done international searches on the topic and both of us had reached the same conclusion; we desperately needed some contemporary attention to the subject of educational administration in developing areas, and we needed this attention in written form so it could be used for future instructional purposes. Our solution to this lacunae of 'thought pieces' on the topic of educational administration in developing areas was to propose to Robin a CCEA sponsored international symposium in educational administration in developing areas.

The Barbados symposium occured in much the same shape as we proposed to Robin that fall day in 1982. The symposium became a joint venture between CCEA and CARSEA, the Barbados based Caribbean Society for the Study of Educational Administration, with substantial funding from the Commonwealth Foundation, the Caribbean Community (CARICOM) and the Canadian International Development Agency (CIDA). The theme/title for the symposium became "The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas: The Caribbean." Earle assumed responsibility as co-ordinator of the symposium and was supported by the Barbados based CARSEA group.

The symposium had three major objectives:

1. identify and discuss issues related to theory, research and practice of educational administration in developing areas generally and the Commonwealth Caribbean specifically, as these issues apply to the professional preparation and development of school administrators in the Commonwealth Caribbean.

2. provide a forum for the collection and analysis of a selection of specially written resource materials addressing research, theory and professional preparation and development in educational administration in developing areas.

3. provide a foundation and direction for future educational research and cooperative ventures in this field between Commonwealth Caribbean, Canada and other Commonwealth nations.

Selected 'experts' were invited to present a discussion paper on a topic that we chose for them. It was intended that they would also react to each others papers. We believe that the list of symposium presenters is representative of the best commonwealth scholars on the topic of educational administration in developing areas. Their efforts for the symposium, presented here in written form, represent a seminal collection of analyses that will be of use to teachers, scholars and practitioners as they grapple with the complexities of education and administration in developing contexts.

Due to space limitation, the reactions to each paper are not reproduced in this document. Earle and I have copies of reaction papers and would be glad to provide copies as requested, at the cost of photocopy reproduction. Similarly, additional copies of the symposium proceedings are available at reproduction cost from either of us.

The papers have been reproduced as presented at the symposium, with only minor editorial changes as required for consistency. However, the order of the papers has been changed to reflect more closely the organization of the symposium around three themes: Educational Administration in General; Educational Administration in Developing Third World Areas; Educational Administration in the Caribbean.

It is hoped that the issues raised in the Symposium papers will provide an ongoing agenda and focus for local groups such as CARSEA to organize their own professional discussions, professional development, research and other ventures related to the training and development of educational administrators in Third World locations.

David G. Marshall, Ph.D.
Dean
Faculty of Education
Nipissing University College
North Bay, Ontario
Canada

OPENING ADDRESS

THE HON. BILLIE A. MILLER,

MINISTER OF EDUCATION & CULTURE

AT THE OPENING OF THE

COMMONWEALTH EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS CONFERENCE

ON MONDAY, 26 AUGUST, 1985

HEYWOODS HOLIDAY RESORT

Mr. Chairman, Pro-Vice Chancellor, Vice-Dean, delegates, ladies and gentlemen:

It is indeed a pleasure for me to be here this morning to participate in what I think is a most timely and important Conference for education administrators in the Caribbean. On behalf of the Government let me join in the welcome already extended to our visitors. I know that the Heywoods Holiday Resort is a most alluring spot - certainly for real relaxation - and occasionally for serious work too; it is yours to enjoy to the fullest this week.

The notion of the "Caribbean at the Crossroads and its implications for education" is one that has exercised and excited the minds of policy makers in this region for a long time.

As far back as July 1979, in London, a group of Senior Commonwealth Education officials acknowledged that educational problems were no less urgent than economic ones. They emphasized that the Eighth Commonwealth Education Conference of Ministers should consider proposals for implementation rather than continue to dwell on identification of issues. The Ministers at that Conference in Sri Lanka in 1981, took the view that managers of the education system should be sensitive to development, public economy, effectiveness and cost benefit. Subsequently, two regional conferences for senior administrators have examined the era of "Management for Change" and proposals for a regional course in administration. An now happily, this Conference is focusing attention on the topic of "Preparation for Management" - I hope that your activity this week will impel us a little nearer to action.

The basic issues affecting the life and development of Caribbean people came under scrutiny at the recently concluded CARICOM Heads of Government meeting in Barbados. The Communique issued at the end of that meeting recognized the fact that the summit came at a time when the economic problems besetting the region were reaching the point of genuine crisis. Pointing the way to positive action, the consensus document (the Barbados Consensus) as it was called, underlined the need for the promotion of "structural adjustment, accelerated development and regional integration among CARICOM countries." The sharp awareness of needs, implied that important elements of the strategy for economic revitalization of the Caribbean, such as strong, local and regional management skills, technology and entrepreneurship, were lacking in the region. These matters were considered of crucial importance if the territories in the Caribbean were to make the transition from "dependence on a few traditional lines of production," to a diversified economic structure capable of participating in a highly competitive world.

I have drawn heavily on the CARICOM Communique and the Barbados Consensus, if only because the problems which are seen to be in need of redress have been thoroughly enunciated:

(i) the need for sound national economic management and sensible development policies;
(ii) provision of adequate infrastructure and supporting services;
(iii) the improvement of the quality of human resources to increase productivity and produce a more equitable distribution of wealth and income; and
(iv) adequate mobilization and availability of capital to generate all round employment.

In the Caribbean region I think we are under no illusion that we can survive on our own or that our outlook for rapid development is glamourous. Individual Governments therefore in planning and implementing their development policies, have to make critical choices, having regard to the reality of the international economic, socio-political environment and its adverse effects which are keenly felt in the region. We are all familiar with the catalogue of impediments associated with this situation. It includes the braindrain from developing to developed countries, inflation and recession, unemployment problems and growing debt repayment difficulties. Also societal problems of drug abuse, increasing intolerance in society, population challenges, degratation of the natural dnvironment; and the heavy and sudden impact of mass communication, information and knowledge on countries which are unprepared. But what occasions the greatest cause for concern is that the majority of persons intimately affected are young and have passed through our formal educational system.

In his book "Society, Schools and Progress in the West Indies", Professor Figueroa takes us on a brief historical review of the political and social conditions of the West Indies in earliest times. The main common features which he identified then were basically the English Language as the medium of expression, a common heritage of servitude and slavery, the socio-economic disadvantages of a one-crop economy, a mixed cultural and ethnic heritage and continuous political ties with one main European country. Uneven distribution of wealth was very evident. Along with these common features were some differences of a physical, economic, cultural religious and social nature. It is also significant that a review of education in the early years mainly through a series of reports focussed as follows:

(i) The Keenan Report of 1869 reinforced by the Mitchinson Report of 1895 stressed the need for compulsory education, upgrading of management of schools, need for 'female education', the insistence on good primary education, with increased supply of books and improvement on the teaching of reading. The struggle then as now was between economy and efficiency and the same contestant always seemed to win.

(ii) The Marriot Mayhew Commission of 1931-32 reported aong other things on secondary education and vocational training in relation to the economic, industrial and professional conditions and needs. In effect the report was termed "modern".

The problems identified raised something of a dilemma for educaitonal policy makers in the Caribbean. Looking back to the early 1960's we saw a sense of complacency and shared the feeling that all was well with education. In come Caribbean countries during this same period we witnessed a fair degree of experimentation in strategic areas of curriculum, training, higher education and social welfare. By the 1970's policy makers and educational administrators recognised the need to examine closely the qualitative aspects of education to ensure that the output from the improved physical facilities was geared to meet the demands and expectations of a modernising society. Although the provision of education has made gret strides since the reports referred to and especially within the last two decades, the present socio-economic conditions make it incumbent on educational planners to review their achievements. Despite the fact that in many Caribbean countries the largest percentage of the national budget still goes to education technical and vocational training facilities are far from adequate especially in the various fields of applied science and technology where computed studies and business studies now add new dimensions. Attention must be paid to the increasing need for para-professionals at all levels and management skills are in scarce supply.

Planning is the key instrument in the implementation of educational policies by those who manage our offerings at all levels but do we consider present management tools capable of dealing with the complexity of the tasks which have to be accomplished? Traditional management is deficient in two respects - that of its tools and that of the style of thinking. In former times systems of education pursued well-trodden and anticipated paths whereas today we are compelled to plan education in an environment which changes with unprecedented speed. It is imperative that we identify our objectives and review traditional methods, techniques and training. The quality of management upon which the progress of education as a major field of social activity depends heavily is of vital importance. All countries of the Caribbean need to strengthen the departments responsible for educational management. This highlights the importance and need for research because the improved quality which is essential can hardly be achieved without relevant studies on the various aspects of management and exchange of information in order to keep abreast of current thinking. The planner should be careflu not to overlook the inter-relatedness of education with all sphere of society.

The irreplceable role of the family in education is crucial. Almost all cultures in the world recognise the family unit as the foremost and most influential of educational agencies. It should provide the earliest teachings on social relationships, roles, moral sense, community awareness and mutual respect. At the same time the constraints of modern economic conditions compel parents to devote more time to work at the expense of looking after their children. Parents should not abdicate their responsibility within the educational system. In the life-long process leading to adulthood not ony teachers, parents, relatives, the Church and the Child Care Bord are involved in education but those directing the media as well. Parents by example or indulgence, advocates of the permissive society, those who profit from the sale of drugs that are destroying the body and soul of our young people - these too are educators.

Whatever technical skills and advanced knowledge are built into our educational system, the future for our people will be dim unless the vital attributes of character development and desirable work attitudes are inculcated. We are not speaking here of old colonial attitudes but cautioning against the overpowering presence of indolence and discourtesy which is clearly making new slaves of some of our youth. If those who manage education now do not exercise vigilance and adhere to the finer attributes of quality living, ourpeople will inherit a devastating legacy of low productivity, wasted potential and personal discontent. Coupled with the emphasis on character development is the challenge for the educational system to provide facilities for training in the difficult but realistic choice of a career. I describe it as realistic since there must be guidance towards the careers for which persons are best suited.

Education for life in the twenty-first century must also take account of the increased opportunities for leisure occasioned by the advances made in science and technology. Leisure has to be perceived in an educational and cultural context; no longer can it be treated as a haphazard activity. Early in the life of the student there must be adequate planning in school programmes to cultivate and develop fully a spirit of balance and harmony in life through meaningful activity on the one hand and useful leisure pursuits on the other. Programmes of this kind will certainly tend to mitigate the growing danger of disaffection and indifference among some students who complain of the irrelevance of the present education system.

Mr. Chairman, as active participants on the Caribbean scene, we are aware that the rapid hanges brought about by the economic, technological and social progress in the wider world, are affecting even the smallest islands among us. Therefore, one of the main educational challenges is to ensure that educational programmes reflect that awareness and prepare our children to assume their roles as responsible adults.

The leadership role in education involves such a variety of skills that unless there is concentration on a well-devised programme of training for that role, it will be impossible to achieve any appreciable measure of efficiency. Administrators in education share with all managers an increasingly difficult task. The conflict of authoritarian leadership of the past and democratic leadership must constantly be resolved. Mangers have to cope with indiscipline, licence, lack of comitment and in some cases irresponsibility and novel employer-employee relationships. In this changed environment it is therefore incumbent on persons in managerial positions to develop appropriate tools and skills.

Although as individual countries in the Caribbean we may be deeply rooted in our way of life, our plans for the future will be the amalgam of our projections and experiments. Adequate answers to our educational or social problems do not reside within the boundaries of any one country; there is therefore more than enough justification for a symposium such as this.

I hope that you will have a week of successful exchange of ideas and arrive at a consensus which will make for the realisation of the educational goals and aspirations of our Caribbean people.

I now have much pleasure in declaring your Conference open.

I. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN GENERAL

EDUCATION AND DEPENDENCE:

IMPLICATIONS FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

IN LATIN AMERICA AND THE CARIBBEAN

by

Benno Sander

Inter-american Society
for Educational Administration
Brazil

Abstract

Using the phenomenon of dependence as the analytical vector, this paper examines the reciprocal limitation between education and society in light of the reciprocal limitation between dominant society and dependent society in the context of international relations. Different perspectives for the study of the phenomenon of dependence are presented with particular emphasis on the perspective of the dominant and the dependent societies. Subsequently, it is demonstrated how the phenomenon of educational dependence in the specific professional field of educational administration manifests itself in historical terms, and its consequences are discussed. Finally, there is a reflection upon the role which comparative education can and should play in Latin America and in dependent countries in general through its conscious and concrete insertion into the global process of overcoming the situation of international dependence.

Introduction

This paper starts from a fundamental premise and a defined analytical perspective, implying a concrete intellectual commitment. It starts from the premise that it is only possible to examine the theme "education and dependence" adequately within the context of the global social process in which dependence is exerted and education is practised. This premise implies an understanding of the power of reciprocal limitation between education and society in the context of the power of reciprocal limitation between dependent society and dominant society. This affirmation suggests the existence of a close association between the phenomenon of dependence and that of power which in final analysis defines and regulates the relations among nations, organizations, social classes and individuals. However, by using dependence as the analytical vector for the comparative study of education in the international context, the concept of dependence refers essentially to the structural relations among nations and to its internal effects within nations.

The phenomenon of dependence can be analyzed in diverse manners, both from the perspective of dominant countries and from that of dependent countries. In this paper, educational dependence is examined from the perspective of the dependent society conceived as the historical product of the dialectical relationship between domination and dependence. This perspective implies a critical and autochthonous intellectual stance, the basis upon which one assumes a concrete commitment. This commitment implies definition, explanation and the meeting of the economic, political and cultural needs and aspirations of the dependent society. In this essay, the nations of Latin America and the Caribbean are considered typical examples of dependent societies within the context of international relations.

Using the phenomenon of dependence as the vector of analysis, the objective of this paper is to examine the role of comparative education from the perspective of the dependent society. The paper starts with an initial introduction to some theories of dependence, their perspectives and protagonists, highlighting the original contributions to Latin America and the Caribbean. Based on this introduction to the sociology of dependence, the paper goes on to address a partial review of the literature dealing with the problem of dependence in education with its effects upon the professional field of educational administration in Latin America and the Caribbean. It concludes with a reflection upon the role which comparative education can play in Latin America and in dependent countries in general, through its conscious and concrete insertion into the global process of overcoming the condition of dependence.[1]

Sociology of Dependence

For more than a century, the phenomenon of dependence has been a subject of study of the social sciences. It has attracted increasing interest in both the rich and poor nations of the socialist bloc, the capitalist world and countries marked by mixed economies. As a consequence of the multiplicity of interests that have been created, it has become difficult to formulate a universally accepted definition of dependence. The fact is that definitions and concepts on the topic vary widely and may sometimes be contradictory. The hypothesis of Ianni, for example, is illustrative as he expresses himself as follows with regard to double euphemism in the use of the concept of dependence in Latin America:

> For the Marxists, it would be seen as a semantic recourse to be utilized (in universities, publishing companies, magazines and newspapers) in the discussion and study of the problem of imperialism. For the non-Marxists the concept of dependence would be a new and conspicuous semantic alternative that is not prohibited in the discussion and study of the external "obstacles" or "marks" of the stagnation or distortion of the capitalist development of Latin America.[2]

For the purposes of this paper, the meaning of dependence will be restricted to two perspectives: the perspective of the dominant society and the perspective of the dependent society. The former is eurocentrist and North-American while the latter has been most intensely developed in Latin America. With these two opposing perspectives in mind, reference will be made to some of the important contributions of specialized literature with the aim of facilitating the study of the role of education in the context of international relations among nations and their effects within dependent nations.

The Perspective of the Dominant Society

In the study of dependence from the perspective of the dominant society there are two major guidelines: that of the Marxists and that of the liberals. Though conflicting among themselves, both examine dependence in a unidirectional sense from the perspective of the dominant society.

The first theoretical proposition on the phenomenon of dependence was formulated by Marx in his economic analysis of history, one of the greatest contributions of his political economy.[3] In his historical vision, the notion of dependence was considered a methodological imposition to forecast the structural crises of the capitalist world. He denounced the contradictions and conflicts inherent in the accumulation of capital at the cost of low wages for labor rendered. This conflict between capital and labor reflects an unequal system of relations between the owners of capital and workers, between appropriators and the expropriated, whether they be countries, organizations, social classes or individuals.

The thesis of Marx, that capitalist imperialism is the cause of dependence, was echoed and interpreted many times in the West and in Eastern Europe as in Lenin's theory of imperialism[4] and the reinterpretation of Luxemburg.[5] These classical theories of imperialism utilize the perspective of the dominant society as their starting point to explain the situation of economic, political and cultural dependence in which the dependent countries find themselves. In their critique of capitalism as the cause of dependence among and within nations, Marx and Engels, Lenin and Luxemburg, and their interpreters consider Marxism as the general theory of emancipation from the situation of dependence. However, the ideal of emancipation espoused by Marxism has yet to take concrete form in dependent countries. This lack of empirical evidence stands as a challenge to the validity of Marxist theory as an analytical framework for explaining dependence and as a praxeological proposal for overcoming the condition of dependence in countries now characterized as dependent.

Nevertheless, Marxism is not the only theoretical guideline for the examination of the phenomenon of dependence from the perspective of the dominant society. The second theoretical guideline, in conflict with the Marxist orientation, is positivistic and evolutionary in inspiration. Instead of seeking its initial theoretical elements in Marx and Engels, it resorts to Comete and Spencer.[6] Instead of adopting revolutionary transformation as the strategy to be used in overcoming the condition of dependence, it adopts peaceful evolution, order and progress. This liberal idealism of the Western world gave rise to many of the theories of the **sociology of development**, which has been in vogue in Europe and the United States in the wake of World War II and inspired studies of the dependent nations, then often designated as **underdeveloped, developing, in the process of development, backward, emerging, transitional, of the Third World, relatively less developed**, and other simmilar classifications.

There are innumerable developmental theories that attempt to describe and explain the situation of dependence while proposing strategies for overcoming it. Although this could be amplified, only some of the theoretical efforts that have been made will be referred to, such as: Rostow's theory of development stages,[7] the theory of entrepreneurial motivation at the core of underdeveloped countries advanced by McClellannd,[8] Riggs' transitional theory of the prismatic society,[9] Eisenstadts's evolutionary theory of differentiation and integration,[10] Etzioni's theory of social change,[11] and the theory of modernization proposed by Lerner.[12] These are just a few of the many classical theoretical contributions to the sociology of development used in Europe and the United States as tools for the study of underdeveloped countries.

Within the framework of general theories of development, more specific theoretical contributions were formulated for the study of human organizations and their administration. A case in point is that of development administration, a theoretical contribution conceived in the United States after World War II and applied to developing countries in the context of comparative political theory.[13] Another similar attempt, one characterized by greater explicative power, is the model of public administration advanced by Riggs as part of his general theory of the prismatic society.[14]

In the context of the developmental movement of the social sciences in Europe and the United States after World War II, one should also cite the emphasis given to governmental planning and, consequently, to educational planning, founded upon the principles of welfare economics and the economics of education. As will be developed later, this developmental orientation is evinced in the proliferation of empirical studies and essays on the economic value of education, investment and returns in the human being, the formation of human capital, manpower training and the preparation of human resources for development and similar themes.

The concepts of the sociology of development reveal the evolutionary, neutral and ahistoric character of the movement, which conceives of the **underdevelopment/development process** from the idealist perspective of the **developed society.** According to this orientation, the situation of dependence would be gradually attenuated as the **underdeveloped societies** would evolve through successive stages until reaching the situation of **developed societies.** The assumption of these theories is that the state of development enjoyed by the **developed societies** is the standard state, the ideal state of the developmental process.

These concepts of the sociology of development adopted in Europe and the United States as analytical instruments for the study of developing nations are severely challenged by the sociology recently advanced in dependent countries. In fact, the sociological literature produced in the last decades in dependent

countries, particularly in Latin America, insists that the liberal theories of Europe and the United States do not adequately explain the phenomenon of dependence. To a lesser degree, these theories do not propose feasible solutions for overcoming the situation of dependence. As in the case of the Marxist conceptions of imperialism, the functionalist theories of the sociology of development are unable to focus adequately upon the specific reality of today's dependent society. The problem is centered on the unidirectional perspective and upon the universalist methodology adopted by both orientations. Since both conceive their theories, methods and concepts from the perspective of the dominant society, they are deficient and limited in their attempts to offer a comprehensive explanation of the specific historical dynamics of the dependent society.[15] Frank's condemnation of the sociologists who apply pattern variables and other classical concepts carelessly in the study of developing nations is particularly relevant here.[16]

The Perspective of the Dependent Society

Associated with the growing belief that the general social theories and methods elaborated in Europe and the United States are inadequate in their attempts to explain the situation of dependence of the dependent nations, there has been an increasing awareness of the necessity to formulate new concepts for the social sciences, so as to enable them to explain the reality of the dependent countries and to propose solutions for overcoming the condition of dependence. This process of conceptual formulation was made operational through the adoption of a new analytical perspective opposite to the one adopted by traditional Marxist and liberal sociology. This inversion of the analytical perspective gave rise to a daring theoretical movement in the social sciences, i.e., the theory of dependence. Schrader elaborates the theory as "the declaration of independence of Latin American sociology.[17]"

As conceived in Latin America, the theory of dependence is identified with a type of economic, sociological and political structuralism. It is concerned with the structural relations that are at the roots of inequalities among nations and within nations. The theory of dependence explains the condition of dependence from the perspective of the dependent society. It is concerned with the causes and consequences of the play of economic and political forces in which all the countries of the world participate. It reveals those who have influenced internationalism while denouncing the interests created in both the dominant and dependent countries. New concepts and new analytical categories are created to define the social structures and processes with enhanced explicative power, as **dominant/dependent, metropolis/satelite, center/periphery, oppressor/oppressed, invader/invaded,** and other similar classifications.

It is in this sociological and economic context that it becomes possible to examine specific social phenomena such as that of education, its theory and practice, policy and administration. Education has always been considered a

valuable instrument in the international and national game of power, performing specific roles based on the interests being served. For this reason, education is simultaneously conceived of as an instrument of domination and liberation, production and reproduction, dissolution and construction, maintenance and change. In summary, if in the opinion of some education is a source of order and progress, for others it is an instrument of conflict and transformation.[18] As will be developed later, the theory of dependence provides a useful framework for the study of the contradictory roles of education in modern society.

Today, there exists a considerable amount of literature on the theory of dependence in Latin America. The movement has exerted significant influence in intellectual circles, universities, governmental and inter-governmental organizations, specifically in the Economic Commission for Latin America (ECLA), a specialized agency of the United Nations Organization. In this context it is especially clarifying to examine the economic writings based upon the theory of dependence of Prebish, who has had a decisive intellectual influence on ECLA's studies.[19] In Brazil, the conception and development of the theory of dependence is highlighted by Cardoso's sociological contribution,[20] Furtado's economic theories,[21] Ribeiro's anthropolgical studies,[22] and the educational contribution of Freire[23] and Berger.[24]

Cardoso, the most influential thinker of the movement, argues--in his penetrating publication co-authored with Faletto,[25]--that in the capitalist structure of relations between the center and the periphery the condition of populational repository has fallen to Latin America, characterized by the exploitation of primary goods and the reserve of territorial resources. These roles impose a structure of class relations that determine the course of the political and economic development of Latin American countries. Today, Cardoso's concepts of "center and periphery" are widely used to define the contrast between rich and poor nations, industrialized and agricultural countries, creditors and debtors, importers and exporters of primary goods versus exporters and importers of the dominant values and the manufactured products of the world system. An analysis of Cardoso's latest publications shows that his theory of dependence has an essentially socio-political approach, seeking to emphasize "the structural bonds between the situation of underdevelopment and the hegemonic centers of the central economies, without attributing to the latter the full determination of the dynamics of development."[26] These concepts suggest that the dependent-society is not a mirror image of the dominant society or, in other words, it is not unidirectionally determined from the outside in. Much to the contrary, the dependent society has its own specific dynamics resulting from the relationship between the reciprocal determination of the peripheral society and the central society. Hence, the dependent society and the dominant society are constructed dialectically. As such, the dependent society can be conceived of as a historical product of the dialectical relationship between domination and dependence.

Furtado[27] postulates that the incorporation of Latin America into the international division of labor led it to adopt a development model based upon the export of primary products that did not require structural changes in society. In his view, the nature of dependent agriculture and of the exploitation of mineral and forestry products fostered the appearance of a rigid class structure that not even governments of a socialist line have been able to modify. Thus, a social structure designed to maintian domination, dependence and inequality consolidated its position.

Based on the premise that social theories are historically conditioned, Ribeiro tries to demonstrate that the eurocentrist theories that assume a character of general validity, such as orthodox Marxism and idealist positivism, are incapable of adequately explaining the dependent reality of the nations of Latin America. Based upon his findings, Ribeiro proposes in his book, Processo Civilizatorio,[28] a new culturally oriented theoretical paradigm founded upon the concepts of "historical updating" and "evalutionary acceleration." This addresses the sociological discussion of the reciprocal relationship between the central society and the peripheral society in light of the theory of dependence.

In the past decades, and more specifically since 1974, new proposals have been presented within the United Nations Organization under the banner of a "New International Economic Order." Its aim is breaking out of the circle of dependence among the central and peripheral countries or at least minimizing its effects. This new international order calls for cheaper loans and technical assistance rendered to poor nations, the reformulations of the International Monetary Fund so as to allow countries in need to participate effectively in the Organization, a more equitable system of international trade, the eradication of proverty and illiteracy, and the economic sovereignty of all the nations of the world.

The conception of the "New International Economic Order" was decisively influenced by the ideas of Prebish[29] and other ECLA thinkers of the theory of dependence. Up to the present, the concrete results of the proposal of the "New International Economic Order" are dismal, and the outlook for the near future is not encouraging. The failure of bilateral and multilateral meetings and conferences, and the repeatedly frustrated initiatives of inter-governmental organizations in the search for a more just international order are a clear demonstration that the underdeveloped world is far from overcoming the situation of international dependence.

Alongside the numerous followers and interpreters of the theory of dependence there are now many critics who question its descriptive and analytical possibilities. In his valuable review of the literature, Lynch[30] shows that criticisms come as much from dependency theorists who are seeking to deepen their knowledge as from those who have not taken a position in favor of the theory. He concludes that although the theory of dependence may not be necessary as a new dogma it challenges that sense of satisfaction that one may

feel in the face of traditional sociological theory. Instead of reducing its analysis to the internal situation of the organizations or countries, the theory of dependence examines their relations with the wider society and the consequent effects of this reciprocal relationship. Undoubtedly, this is one of the major contributions of the theory of dependence to contemporary social science. However, according to Latin American social science, its most important contribution is the inversion of the analytical perspective in relation to the dominant sociology of European and North-American origin. Based on this original contribution--in the framework of the effort to construct a more autonomous sociology in Latin America--this paper will now examine the phenomenon of dependence in education.

The Theory of Dependence in Education

It was in the 1960s that the theory of dependence began to be applied to education, in opposition to the developmental pedagogy fostered by such educational economists as Schultz, Becker, Denison, Hansen, Mincer, Harbison, Meyers, Davis, Bowman and Anderson.[31] As can be deduced from their technical reports and specialized publications, these and other authors had considerable influence on the programs of technical cooperation in the area of educational planning sponsored by the international development agencies of the industrialized nations and by inter-governmental organizations.

Today, there is a quantity of literature dealing with the problem of educational dependence, a fact which demonstrates that the phenomenon is penetrating into all corners of the globe. It is occurring independently of the social and political organization and is of interest as much to the underdeveloped countries as to the developed. One indicator of the importance of the problem of dependence in education is the intensity with which the matter is debated at national and international meetings and conferences of educators. A good example is the Vth World Congress of Comparative Education held in Paris in 1984, an event at which the phenomenon of educational dependence was chosen as the central theme. Debeauvais emphasized the importance of the theme for comparative education, particularly in the dependent countries, by relating its relevance "to the fact that international exchanges in the field of education have never been so intense and diverse."[32] He concluded that with the intensification of these exchanges, analysis "shows up the inequality in the relationships as far as education is concerned and the domination--economic, technological and political--of the Third World by the industrialized nations."[33]

In the United States the most important current dependency theorists in education, such as Carnoy and Levin, Bowles and Gintis, Apple and Wexler, all follow a neo-Marxist line, albeit with their own specific interpretations and, consequently, different contributions. Carnoy and Levin examine the relationships between capitalism, educational levels and class.[34] Carnoy is particularly emphatic in his denunciation of cultural imperialism[35] exerted by educational enterprises in dependent countries through joint action, whether conscious or unconscious, of the dominating elite of dominant countries and the dominating elite of dominated countries since, between these two groups, there is a communion of interests. Bowles and Gintis examine the relationship between education and labor as a phenomenon associated to the theory of reproduction.[36] Apple bases his work on Gramsci's concept of hegemony in order to study the relationship between economic and cultural domination thus demonstrating that

the school is an agent of ideological hegemony, "selective tradition" and "cultural incorporation."[37] Wexler is concerned with the phenomenon of power and how the school contributes to its distribution and to the preservation of existent inequalities.[38]

The most complete and comprehensive review of the scholarly writings on the problem of dependence in the context of educational sociology has been produced by Karabel and Halsey who examine specialized literature on the theme from two opposing perspectives: that of the functionalists and that of the dialecticians.[39] The functionalists describe and accept the phenomenon of dependence and conform to it by the fact that they consider it to be natural and inevitable in the context of the relations among nations, organizations, social classes and individuals. On the other hand, the dialecticians denounce the phenomenon of dependence, rebel against it and become politically involved in the process of overcoming the situation of dependence.

In Europe, popular contributions have been made by vanguard social scientists, such as Althusser, Bourdieu and Passeron in France,[40] Berstein and Young in England,[41] and Gramsci in Italy.[42] All of them are neo-Marxist thinkers with the exception of Berstein who inherited his creative intellectual system originally from Durkheim. However, he too, though he does not explicate this, has been influenced by the thought of Marx and Mead. These authors have important influence in university circles in all parts of the world. There are indications, however, that their initial theories have less influence today than they had ten years ago, perhaps by the fact that having fulfilled their goal of denouncing and explicating the role of reproduction and domination played by the school, they have not forwarded, as yet, sufficiently concrete proposals for overcoming historically intrenched situations.

In Latin America, Freire and Berger hold outstanding positions due to their work on educational dependence. One of Freire's most important contributions is his interpretation of the power of economic and cultural domination exerted by education, particularly through curricular content and teaching methodology. In his book, "Pedagogy of the Oppressed,"[43] he analyses the curriculum as an instrument of oppression of the poor, demonstrating how it prepares the poor to live in an orderly fashion under the banner of dependence. Although Freire's analytical scope is essentially restricted to the school in the local context, one can derive from his mental structure the existence of an <u>international pedagogy of the oppressed</u> that forms a basis for national and local pedagogies. In other words, would it not be true that the dependent and peripheral nations are oppressed by a universalist pedagogy that is conceived and exported by the hegemonic centers of the world on the basis of their economic and political interests? If this is true, would it not also be true that comparative education has contributed in the past, and would now be running the risk of contributing in the future, to the transfer of ideas, principles and methodologies from the developed North to the underdeveloped South? Therefore, what philosophy should guide the study of comparative education so that, instead of strengthening the circle of dependence, it may be able to foster cultural autonomy in the context of the global process of overcoming the state of dependence?

Another Latin American dependency scholar in education is Berger whose thesis on Education and Dependence,[44] has enriched the international bibliography. Berger's work is marked by an incisive investigation of the Brazilian educational system with special emphasis on the relation between society and education in the global context that characterizes the dependent society. He examines the concrete conditions of the national development process, and after an analysis of the origin and conditioning factors of the educational system he delves into a study of its possibilities of overcoming the global situation of dependence.

Schrader describes the international importance of Berger's work when he includes it among the theoretical efforts aimed at "the emancipation of Latin American sociology itself,"[45] in the name of the theory of dependence. In the light of the theoretical preciseness and empirical methodology that mark Berger's work, Schrader emphasizes its comparative potential, stating that it could well serve "as an important point of departure for analyses of comparable phenomena in other societies, including a country such as the Federal Republic of Germany, a nation that considers itself as dominant but which, in fact, is also dependent, to a certain extent."[46]

One of the most valuable characteristics of Berger's work is the stance he assumes as a researcher who considers himself in methodological terms to be "engaged in the situation of dependence", as a "member of the dependent society to be analyzed."[47] This explicit and intentional stance implies "a scientific critical behavior at once emancipated and emancipating" on the part of the social scientist committed to overcoming "scientific imperialism" through an intellectual attitude and systematic practice.[48] This attitude emphasizes "the uniqueness of the structures, processes and relations"[49] of the dependent society, as opposed to the European and North-American theories and concepts conceived to explain social phenomena that are historically different.

Educational Administration and Dependence: The Latin American Case

It is clarifying to note that the phenomenon of dependence is specifically evident in a professional field of study, such as educational administration, and in a specific region, such as Latin America. The critical examination of these manifestations and how they became reality leads to a reflection upon the concrete implications of the situation of dependence for the practical activities of educators, and particularly those who are responsible for educational administration. In practical terms, what is the utility of the theory of dependence for educational policy-makers and administrators? Is its usefulness limited to denouncing the situation of dependence and identifying its causes and manifestations? Or does it provide the theoretical and praxeological elements that can be used by administrators to perfect their professional performance? Finally, what is the role of comparative education in the dependent countries? How can comparative education collaborate in the overcoming of the situation of dependence, providing education in the dependent countries with greater cultural and political autonomy?

The manifestations of the problem of dependence in educational administration in Latin America and the Caribbean are evident. It is enough to examine the evolution of Latin American educational administrative thought to conclude that, to a great extent, the history of school administration in Latin America is a history of cultural dependence.[50] The fact is that up to the 1930s references made to administration during the course of Latin American educational history used the juridical approach inherited from Roman administrative law. The theoretical framework of this penetrating approach in educational administration in colonial Latin America, as in the social sciences in general, was imported from continental Europe. This cultural dependence on Europe is evident in the essentially discursive, normative and legalistic publications on education and educational administration in the general context of the social and juridical sciences of the time. It is important to note here that the initial administrative orientation of the Commonwealth Caribbean nations is different from that of the countries of Spanish and Portuguese origin, because of their political and juridical inheritance. Cultural dependence, though, is at the roots of educational development in the Caribbean as it is in Latin America in general.

Beginning in 1930, Latin American educational administration adopted the business approach, founded upon a combination of the economic rationalism of the Industrial Revolution and the pedagogical pragmatism of the New School. The most influential writings in public and educational administration in Latin America date to the business stage. The preliminaries of the business approach sought whole theoretical elements in Europe and, later, in the United States of America. For this reason, the administrative theory of that period is primarily based on the classic principles of management advanced by Fayol in France, Gulick and Urwick in England, Weber in Germany and Taylor and his associates in the United States.[51] It was in this context, for instance, that the first essays on school administration in Brazil appeared in the 1930s, authored by Teixeira,[52] a figure strongly influenced by the pedagogical pragmatism of James and Dewey; by Querino Ribeiro,[53] a disciple of Fayol; and Carneiro Leao,[54] who adopted a more eclectic orientation. It was also in that phase that the first study of Lourenco Filho[55] one should emphasize that their contribution to Latin American pedagogical studies was not restricted to the pragmatic approach. Much to the contrary, their pedagogical thought transcends the borders of the classical schools, flowing into the area of the sociological orientation of modern pedagogy and administration.

Beginning with World War II, the behavioral approach came to the fore in Latin American educational administration. This was a new theoretical current that originated in the United States as an aspect of the human relations movement developed under the leadership of Follet and Mayo and, later, through the influential work of Barnard and Simon,[56] as can be deduced from the texts translated into Portuguese and Spanish[57] and from the publications of the behavioral and functionalist scholars that invaded Latin American literature, on educational administration.

Finally, the sociological approach, conceived during the last decades under the initial leadership of Guerreiro Ramos,[59] represented an attempt to conceive of an administrative theory within the limits of Latin American reality. However, with the passing of time, this approach was unable to resist the strength of the literature from the industrialized countries of the North. This can be deduced from the invasion of a number of theoretical movements, such as development administration,[60] management by objectives,[61] administrative ecology,[62] institutional development,[63] contingency theory,[64] and many others. All the models were conceived in industrialized nations and transferred to Latin America, often with no critical evaluation.

This brief historical review reveals that educational administrative theory in Latin America is based on the academic currents of Europe and the United States. There is an increasing awareness of this fact and its pervasive consequences in today's Latin American intellectual circles which are engaged in the conception of theories and solutions from the perspective and within the limits of Latin American reality.[65]

Consequences of Educational Dependence

A major pedagogical consequence of educational dependence in Latin America and the Caribbean is the inbred formalism born of centuries of European domination.[66]

During the colonial times Spain, Portugal, Great Britain and Europe, in general, imposed much of their culture, and economic and political systems on Latin America and the Caribbean. This was followed by a growing American influence. An analysis of the origin and historical evolution of Latin American social and political institutions, including the educational institution, shows that many exogenous norms and institutions were assimilated by the Latin American society, then in its formative stages, through a mimetic process of conscious or unconscious adaptation. Many other imported institutions, however, were never incorporated into the Latin American nationalities and, consequently, are not entirely followed in real life. Prescribed formulas are ignored with the simultaneous adoption of substitute codes and alternate institutions of an autochthonous character.[67]

In the field of education mention should be made of Teixeira's enunciation of this pheonmenon, when he discusses the discrepancy between the "proclaimed values and the real values in Brazilian educational institutions,"[68] an enunciation that was tested empirically in the study of the process of implementation of the Law of Directives and Bases of National Education of 1961 in the secondary schools of Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil.[69] Bastos Silva joins Teixeira and endorses his criticism of imported European ideals and solutions for Brazilian education. He shows that for a long time education in Brazil was an extention of the expanding European-Western culture since the nation was growing on the periphery of that civilization without being able to break out of its primitive colonial condition.[70] With greater or lesser intensity this phenomenon is noted in all Latin American countries.

In his lucid study of the strategic aspect of the phenomenon of dependence, Guerreiro Ramso states that independently of its limitations the history of educational formalism in Brazil made a valuable contribution to the reduction of social rigidity.[71] However, notwithstanding the relatively positive value of the past educational formalism in Brazil and Latin America in general, there is a growing awareness that the current stage of development demands an educational system that is more suited to the Latin American reality and characterized by greater cultural and political autonomy. This awareness is evident among Latin American educators no matter what their guiding principles may be. In 1963, for example, Sucupira complained of the Brazilian case, stating that "up to the present, we have been unable to structure an educational system in our own image and likeness" and recommending that "we must adjust the Brazilian educational process to the total national process".[72] Some years later, Teixeira stated:

> Even today, as a transplanted system--and one badly transplanted, at that--grafted from anachronistic elements, the Brazilian educational system is, perhaps, the most serious case of maladjustment between the real nation--marching towards a stage of self-possession--and its educational institutions inherited from a period of mimesis and social imitation and devoid of autonomy and authenticity.[73]

The criticism sharpens when Saviani goes so far as to deny even the existence of a Brazilian educational system.[74] As witnessed by his writings, Chagas,[75] though contesting Saviani's thesis, is one of the most insistent defenders of a Brazilian educational theory. Similar manifestations can be found in all of the nations of Latin America. It is in this spirit of commitment to reality that this paper concludes with a reflection on the role of comparative education in the perspective of Latin American education.

Conclusion: The Role of Comparative Educational Administration

This paper, using the phenomenon of dependence as the analytical vector, has examined the reciprocal limitation between education and society in the context of the reciprocal limitation between the dominant society and the dependent society. It has examined the different perspectives for the study of the phenomenon of dependence, and more specifically the perspective of the dominant society and the perspective of the dependent society. It has analyzed how the phenomenon of educational dependence manifests itself in space and time in the specific professional field of educational administration and has discussed its consequences. Finally, the paper made an explicit option to examine education and dependence from the perspective of the dependent society of Latin America, conceived of as the historical product of the dialectical relationship between domination and dependence.

At the close of this intellectual effort, there remain a number of questions for further consideration. Where do we go from here? What are the practical implications of this effort for comparative education, more specifically for comparative educational administration in Latin America and the Caribbean? What is the role of comparative educational administration in the reciprocal relationship between education and society in the context of the reciprocal relationship between dominant society and dependent society? What is the role of intergovernmental organizations, of international technical cooperation and of scientific and professional associations in the field of educational administration?

The answers to these questions are a direct function of the perspective adopted which, in turn, has historically situated roots. Positioned in space and time, each intellectual perspective implies its own theoretical framework and specific methodological instruments. The fact is that, today there exists sufficient evidence that the conception of social theories and methodologies is determined by specific historical conditions that do not grant it universal validity for explaining phenomena and processes that occur in different historical and geographical situations.[76]

This evidence leads one to question seriously the transplant, transfer or unidirectional adaptation of theories and methodologies and of educational forms and contents from the dominant society to the dependent society without a detailed study of the needs and aspirations of the dependent society from the perspective of the dependent society. It is in this context that having assumed a commitment with the dependent society, comparative educational administration should assume the role of mediator, at once critical and autochthonous, emancipated and emancipating. This mediation, conceived of here as a concrete category based on the perspective of the dependent society, denies the unidirectional or vertical determination of the dominant society over the dependent society, in the context of the assumption that they limit one another reciprocally and construct one another dialectically. In this process of reciprocal limitation, one can only conceive of a place for comparative educational administration in the dependent society if it is designed to play a role of mediation with the objective of overcoming the situation of dependence from the economic, political and cultural perspective of the dependent society itself, in the context of international relations.

On the part of institutions and specialists in the field of educational administration, this perspective implies a courageous intellectual stance coupled with a critical and liberating behaviour. However, since the power of education within the complex of economic, political and cultural forces is quite restricted in its efforts to overcome the situation of dependence, this behaviour will only have a real impact if it is firmly engaged in the global social process of overcoming the situation of dependence.

This closing reflection brings us back to the initial premise of this paper: to suggest that our intellectual activity should be developed on the basis of a defined perspective. This perspective implies a concrete commitment. A commitment from which we cannot flee. Let it then be a commitment with Latin American and Caribbean education.

NOTES AND REFERENCES

[1]In this paper, I expand the ideas published by the Brazilian Ministry of Education and Culture with a more limited scope, as seen in Benno Sander, "Educacao e Dependencia: O Papel da Educacao Comparada," Em Aberto, Brasilia: MEC, INEP, Vol. 3, No. 24, Novembro de 1984. For another and more general discussion of the same ideas see Benno Sander, "Education and Dependence: The Role of Comparative Education," Prospects, (UNESCO, Paris: 1985), Volume XV, No. 2. In the examination of education from the perspective of the dependent society in its dialectical relations with the dominant society, I found valuable analytical elements in the theory of dependence, developed by Fernando Henrique Cardoso with the collaboration of Enzo Faletto, and its utilization as a theoretical framework in Manfredo Berger's evaluation of Brazilian educational policy in recent decades. See F.H. Cardoso and E. Faletto, Dependencia e Desenvolviment na America Latina: Ensaio de Interpretacao Sociologica, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Zahar, 1970); F.H. Cardoso, Politica e Desenvolvimento em Sociedades Dependentes, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Zahar, 1971); Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Difel, SA, 1980).

[2]Octavio Ianni, Sociologia da Sociologia Latino-americana, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Civilizacao Brasileira, 1971), p. 164.

[3]Karl Marx, O Capital, Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Civilizacao Brasileira, 1980; K. Marx, Contribuicao a Critica da Economia Politica, (Sao Paulo: Martins Fontes, 1977).

[4]V.I. Lenin, O Imperialismo, Etapa Superior do Capitalismo, (1916).

[5]Rosa Luxemburg, The Accumulation of Capital, (New York: Monthly Review Press, 1964).

[6]Auguste Comte, Cours de Philosophie Positive, (1830-1842); Herbert Spencer, System of Synthetic Philosophy, (1860).

[7]W.W. Rostow, The Stages of Economic Growth, (Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press, 1960).

[8]David D. McClelland, The Achieving Society, (Princeton, N.J.: Van Nostrand, 1961).

[9]Fred W. Riggs, Administration in Developing Countries: The Theory of Prismatic Society, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964).

[10]Samuel N. Eisenstadt, "Social Change, Differentiation and Evolution", American Sociological Review, Vol. XXIX, No. 3, (June 1964).

[11]Amitai Etzioni and Eva Etzioni, eds., Social Change: Sources, Patterns and Consequences, (New York, Basic Books, 1964).

[12]David Lerner, The Passing of Traditional Society: Modernizing the Middle East, (Illinois: The Free Press of Glencoe, 1958).

[13]See Ferrel Heady, Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective, (New York: Marcel Dekker, 1979).

[14]Fred W. Riggs, Administration in Developing Countries: The Theory of Prismatic Society, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964).

[15]For a critical evaluation of the limitations of both liberal and Marxist eurocentrist and North-American theories in their efforts to explain and forecast the specific dynamics of the dependent society, see Alberto Guerreiro Ramos, A Reducao Sociologica: Introducao ao Estudo da Razao Sociologica, (Rio de Janeiro: Tempo Brasileiro, 1967); A.G. Ramso, A Nova Ciencia das Organizacoes: Uma Reconceituacao da Riqueza das Nacoes, (Rio de Janeiro: Fundacao Getulio Vargas, 1982); A.G. Ramos, Introducao Critica a Sociologia Brasileira, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Andes, 1957); Fernando Henrique Cardoso, Mudancas Sociais na America Latina, (Sao Paulo: Difusao Europeia do Livro, 1969); Darcy Ribeiro, O Processo Civilizatorio: Etapas da Evolucao Socio-Cultural, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Civilizacao Brasileira, 1968); Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo/Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980).

[16]Andre Gunder Frank, "The Sociology of Development and the Underdevelopment of Sociology," in J.D. Cockcorft, A.G. Frank, and D.L. Johnson, eds., Dependency and Underdevelopment: Latin America's Political Economy, (Garden City, N.J.: Doubleday and Company, Inc., Anchor Books, 1966).

[17]Achim Schrader, "Apresentacao", in Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo/Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1970), p. 3.

[18]For a review of the literature on the contradictory roles of education in the context of the sociology of education see Jerome Karabel and H.H. Halsey, Power and Ideology in Education, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1977); Benno Sander, "Consenso e Conflito na Administracao da Educacao", Revista Brasileira de Administracao da Educacao, Vol. I, No. 1, (1983), pp. 12-34.

[19]Raul Prebish, Transformacao e Desenvolvimento: A Grande Tarefa da America Latina, (Rio de Janeiro: Fundacao Getulio Vargas, 1973), 2 Volumes; Raul Prebish, Dinamica do Desenvolvimento Latino-Americano, 2nd Edition, (Rio de Janeiro: Fundo de Cultura, 1968).

[20]Fernando H. Cardoso and Enzo Faletto, Dependencia e Desenvolvimento na America Latina: Ensaio de Interpretacao Sociologica, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Zahar, 1970). The original studies by Cardoso and Faletto were submitted to keen criticisms some of which even denied a theoretical status to their theory of dependence. Later Cardoso discusses these criticisms and presents the concept of dependence as an analytical instrument that intends to explain economic, political and cultural processes based on the concrete situations in which they occur. See F.H. Cardodo, O Modelo Politico Brasileiro e Outros Ensaios, (Sao Paulo, Difel, 1973).

[21]Celso Furtado, Economic Development in Latin America, (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1970).

[22]Darcy Ribeiro, O Processo Civilizatorio: Etapas da Evolucao Socio-Cultural, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Civilizacao Brasileira, 1968).

[23]Paulo Freire, A Pedagogia do Oprimido , (Rio de Janeiro: Paz e Terra, 4th Edition, 1977).

[24]Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo/Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980).

[25]Fernando Henrique Cardoso and Enzo Faletto, Dependencia e Desenvolvimento na America Latina: Ensaio de Interpretacao Sociologica, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Zahar, 1970).

[26]F.H. Cardoso and E. Faletto, Op. Cit., p. 30.

[27]Celso Furtado, Economic Development in Latin America, (Cambridge, U.K.: Cambridge University Press, 1970).

[28]Darcy Ribeiro, O Processo Civilizatorio: Etapas da Evolucao Socio-Cultural, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Civilizacao Brasileira, 1968).

[29]Raul Prebish, Transformacao e Desenvolvimento: A Grande Tarefa da America Latina, Rio de Janeiro: Fundacao Getulio Vargas, 1973, 2 Volumes; Raul Prebish, Dinamica do Desenvolvimento Latino-Americano, 2nd Edition, (Rio de Janeiro: Fundo de Cultura, 1968).

[30]Patrick D. Lynch, "Dependency Theory and Educational Administration", (New York: American Educational Research Association, State of the Art Address, Division A, 1982).

[31]Theodore W. Schultz, The Economic Value of Education, (New York: Columbia University Press, 1963), Gary S. Becker, Human Capital: A Theoretical and Empirical Analysis, with Special Reference to Education, (New York: National Bureau of Economic Research, 1964); Edward F. Denison, "Measuring the Contribution of Education to Economic Growth," in Readings in the Economics of Education, (Paris: UNESCO, 1968), pp. 315-338; W. Lee Hansen, "Total and Private Rates of Return to Investment in Schooling," Journal of Political Economy, Vol. LXXI, (April, 1963), pp. 128-140; Jacob Mincer, "On the Job Training: Costs, Returns, and Some Implications," Journal of Political Economy, vol LXX, (October, 1962), Part II, pp. 50-59; Frederick Harbison and Charles A. Meyers, Education, Manpower and Economic Growth, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1964); Russel G. Davis, Planning Human Resources Development: Educational Models and Schemata, (Chicago: Rand McNally and Company, 1966); Mary Jean Bowman and C. Arnold Anderson, "Concerning the Role of Education in Development," in Readings in the Economics of Education, (Paris: UNESCO, 1968), pp. 113-131. This

economic approach to education was immediately adopted in numerous studies in Latin America such as those of: Martin Carnoy, "The Cost and Return to Schooling in Mexico: A Case Study," Ph.D. Dissertation, (University of Chicago, 1964); Carl Shoup, The Fiscal System of Venezuela, (Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1959); Guillermo Franco Camacho, Rendimiento de la Inversion en Educacion en Colombia, CEDE, (Universidad de los Andes, Bogota, July 1964); Arnold C. Harberger and Marcelo Selowsky, "Key Factors in the Economic Growth of Chile," (Cornell University: 1966) Mimeo; Claudio de Moura Castro, "Investment in Education in Brazil: A Study of Two Industrial Communities," Ph.D. Thesis (Vanderbilt University: 1970); Samuel Levy, "An Economic Analysis of Investment in Education in the State of Sao Paulo," (Instituto de Pesquisas Economicas, Universidade de Sao Paulo: 1969); Carlos Geraldo Langoni, "A Study of Economic Growth: The Brazilian Case," Ph.D. Thesis, (University of Chicago, 1970).

[32]Michel Debeauvais, "Dependence and Interdependence in Education: Introductory Note to the Congress Theme," Vth World Congress of Comparative Education, (Paris: July 1984), Mimeo.

[33]Michel Debeauvais, Op. Cit., 1984.

[34]Martin Carnoy and Henry M. Levin, The Limits of Educational Reform, (New York: David McKay, Co., Inc., 1976).

[35]Martin Carnoy, Education as Cultural Imperialism, (New York: McKay, 1974).

[36]S. Bowles and H. Gintis, Schooling in Capitalist America, (New York: Basic Books, 1976).

[37]Michael W. Apple, Ideology and Curriculum, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1979); M.W. Apple, Education and Power, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1982).

[38]Philip Wexler, "Structure, Text and Subject: A Critical Sociology of School Knowledge," in Michael W. Apple, ed., Cultural and Economic Reproduction in Education, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1982).

[39]Jerome Karabel and A.H. Halsey, Power and Ideology in Education, (New York: Oxford University Press, 1977).

[40]Louis Althusser, "Ideologie et Appareils Ideologiques d'Etat," Pensee, (Paris: June 1970); Pierre Bourdieu and Jean Claude Passeron, A Reproducao: Elementos para uma Teoria dos Sistemas de Ensino, (Rio de Janeiro: Francisco Alves, 1975).

[41]Basil Berstein, Class, Codes and Control, Volume 3: Towards a Theory of Educational Transmission, 2nd Edition, (London: Rutledge and Kevin Paul, 1973), Michael Young, ed., Knowledge and Control, (London: Collier-McMillan, 1971).

[42]Antonio Gramsci, Il Materialismo Storico, (Roma Editori Riuniti, 1973); Antonio Gramsci, Os Intelectuais e a Organizacao da Cultura, (Rio de Janeiro: Civilizacao Brasileira, 1979).

[43]Paulo Freire, Pedagogia do Oprimido, (Rio de Janeiro: Editora Paz e Terra, 4th Edition, 1977); Paulo Freire, Educacao como Pratica da Liberdade, (Rio de Janeiro, Paz e Terra, 12th Edition, 1981).

[44]Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980).

[45]Achim Schrader, "Apresentacao," in Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980), p. 7.

[46]Achim Schrader, "Apresentacao," in Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980), p. 7.

[47]Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980), p. 153.

[48]Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980), p. 152.

[49]Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980), p. 153.

[50]For an overview of the evolution of administrative thought in Latin American education, see Benno Sander and Thomas Wiggins, "The Cultural Context of Administrative Theory: In Consideration of a Multidimensional Paradigm," Educational Administration Quarterly, (Winter, 1985).

[51]Henri Fayol, Administration Industrielle et Generale, (Paris: Dunod, 1916); Luther Gulick and Lyndall Urwick, ed., Papers on the Science of Administration, (New York: Harper and Row, 1944); Max Weber, The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, (New York: The Free Press, 1964); Frederick W. Taylor, Principles of Scientific Management, (New York: Harper and Row, Publishers, 1911).

[52]Anisio S. Teixeira, Educacao Publica, sua Organizacao e Administracao, (1935). See also his article on "A Administracao Publica Brasileira e a Educacao," in Revista Brasileira de Estudos Pedagogicos, (Rio de Janeiro: INEP, January-March, 1956), Vol. XXV, No. 61.

[53]Jose Querino Ribeiro, Fayolismo n Administracao das Escolas Publicas, (Sao Paulo, 1938). To this initial conceptual effort in Brazilian educational organization and administration he added Ensaio de uma Teoria da Administracao Escolar, Sao Paulo: University of Sao Paulo, School of Philosophy, Bulletin No. 158, 1952, Later published under the same title, with the collaboration of Joao Gualberto de Carvalho Menezes, by Editora Saraiva, S.A., (1978).

[54]Antonio Carneiro Leao, Introducao a Administracao Escolar, (Sao Paulo: Companhia Editora Nacional, 1939).

[55]M.B. Lourenco Filho, Administracao dos Servicos de Ensino no Pais, (Rio de Janeiro: Ministry of Education and Culture, National Institute of Pedagogical Studies, 1941).

[56]Henry c. Metcalf and Lyndall Urwick, Dynamic Administration: The Collected Papers of Mary Follett, (New York: Harper and Row, 1942); Elton Mayo, The Social Problems of an Industrial Civilization, (Boston: Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1945); Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938); Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, (New York, McMillan, 1945).

[57]Chester I. Barnard, The Functions of the Executive, (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1938); Herbert A. Simon, Administrative Behavior, (New York: McMillan, 1945); Daniel Katz and Robert Kahn, The Social Psychology of Organizations, (New York: John Wiley and Sons, Inc., 1966); Daniel E. Griffiths, Administrative Theory, (New York: Appleton-Century-Crofts, 1959).

[58]See, for example, Myrtes Alonso, O Papel do Diretor na Administracao Escolar, (Sao Paulo: Editora Universidade Catolica, 1976).

[59]Alberto Guerreiro Ramos, Uma Introducao ao Historico da Organizacao Racional do Trabalho, (Rio de Janeiro: Departamento de Imprensa Nacional, 1956); Alberto Guerreiro Ramos, Introducao Critica a Sociologia Brasileira, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Andes, 1957); A.G. Ramos, A Reducao Sociologica: Introducao ao Estudo da Razao Sociologica, (Rio de Janeiro: Tempo Brasileiro, 1967 [2nd edition, revised and corrected from the first edition published in 1958]).

[60]For an analysis of development administration see for example, Ferrel Heady, Public Administration: A Comparative Perspective, (New York: Marcel Dekker, 1979); Paulo Roberto Motta, "Administracao para o Desenvolvimento: A Disciplina em busca de Relevancia," Revista de Administracao Publica, Vol. VI, No. 3, (July/September, 1972), pp. 39-53.

[61]Peter F. Drucker, Management, (New York: Harper's College Press, 1977); P.F. Drucker, The Effective Executive, (London: Heinemann, 1967).

[62]Fred W. Riggs, Administration in Developing Countries: The Theory of Prismatic Society, (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1964).

[63]For a review of the literature on institutional development and an evaluation of its potential and limitations see Geraldo Borges Santos "Desenvolvimento Institucional: Uma Estrategia," Revista de Administraticao Publica, Vol. XIV, No. 3, (July/September, 1980), pp. 5-18.

[64]Alfred D. Chandler, Jr., Strategy and Structure: Chapters in the History of American Enterprise, (Cambridge, Mass.: The Massachusetts Institute of Technology Press, 1976); Tom Burns and G.M. Stalker, The Management of Innovation, (London: Tavistock Publications, 1961); Paul R. Lawrence and Jay W. Lorsch, Organization and Environment: Managing Differentiation and Integration, (Cambridge, Mass., Harvard University Press, 1967).

[65]Examples of these theoretical efforts can be found in Benno Sander, "Administracao da Educacao no Brasil: E Hora da Relevancia," Educacao Brasileira, Revista do Conselho de Reitores das Universidades Brasileiras, Ano IV, No. 9, (Brasilia: 20 Semestre, 1982); Benno Sander and Thomas Wiggins, "The Cultural Context of Administrative Theory: In Consideration of a Multidimensional Paradigm," Educational Administration Quarterly, (Winter, 1985); Antonio Muniz Rezende, Jose Camilo dos Santos Filho e Maria Lucia Rocha Duarte Carvalho, "Administracao Universitaria como Ato Pedagogico," Educacao Brasileira, (Brasilia: 1978), Ano I, No. 2, pp. 15-58.

[66]For an analysis of the problem of formalism and its empirical corroboration in Brazilian education see Benno Sander, Educacao Brasileira: Valores Formais e Valores Reais, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Pioneira/FENAME/Fundacao Biblioteca Patricia Bildner, 1977).

[67]These and other characteristics associated with formalism to hold an important position in sociological studies in Brazil. The most outstanding examples were reviewed by Guerreiro Ramos, who cites Pauline Jose Soarez de Souze (Visconde do Uruguai), Ensaio sobre o Direito Administrativo, (Rio de Janeiro: 1960); Silvio Romero, Historia da Literatura Brasileira, (Rio de Janeiro: 1886), B.L. Garnier, Libreiro Editor, Vol. I; Alberto Torres, O Problema Nacional Brasileiro: Introducao a um Programa de Organizacao Nacional, (Sao Paulo: Ed. Nacional, 1938); Oliveira Viana, O Idealismo da Constituicao, (Sao Paulo: Ed. Nacional, 1939); Oliveira Viana, Instituicoes Politicas do Brasil: Morfologia do Direito Publico, (Rio de Janeiro: Livraria Jose Olympio Editora, 1949).

[68]Anisio Teixeira, "Valores Proclamados e Valores Reais nas Instituicoes Escolares Brasileiras", Revista Brasileira de Estudos Pedagogicos, Vol. XXXVI, No. 84, (October-December, 1961), p. 70.

[69]Benno Sander, Educacao Brasileira: Valores Formais e Valores Reais, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Pioneira/FENAME/Fundacao Biblioteca Patricia Bildner, 1977).

[70]Geraldo Bastos Silva, Educacao e Desenvolvimento Nacional, (Rio de Janeiro: ISEB, 1957); G.B. Silva, Introducao a Critica do Ensino Secundario, (Rio de Janeiro: MEC/CADES, 1959).

[71]Alberto Guerreiro Ramos, Administracao e Estrategia do Desenvolvimento, (Rio de Janeiro: Fundacao Getulio Vargas, 1966), Chap. VI.

[72]Newton Sucupira, "Relacoes entre o Conselho Federal de Educacao e os Conselhos Estaduais," Lecture delivered at the 1st Joint Meeting of Councils of Education, held in Rio de Janeiro, November 1963, in Documenta, No. 21, Vol. II, p. 27.

[73]Anisio S. Teixeira, A Educacao e um Direito, (Sao Paulo: Ed. Nacional, 1968), p. 70.

[74]Dermeval Saviani, Educacao Brasileira: Estrutura e Sistema, (Sao Paulo: Editora Saraiva, 1973).

[75]Valnir Chagas, Educacao Brasileira: O Ensino de 10 e 20 Graus, (Sao Paulo: Edicoes Saraiva, 1977).

[76]This situationalist orientation is widely adopted in Latin American social science which, though it defends the universality of science, emphasizes that it is differentiated in time and space "with respect to the problems it deals with," to use the expression of Guerreiro Ramos, in Introducao Critica a Sociologia Brasileira, (Rio de Janeiro: Ed. Andes, 1957), p. 25. The concepts of "historization" of Guerreiro Ramos and that of "evolutionary acceleration" of Ribeiro are characteristic examples of this phenomenon, which condemns scientific neutrality and the ahistoric character of social theories. For a discussion of this theme in education see Manfredo Berger, Educacao e Dependencia, (Sao Paulo and Rio de Janeiro: Difel, 1980); see also Noel F. McGinn and Luis Porter Galater, "An Introduction to Strategic Planning in Education," (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University, Graduate School of Education, 1983), Mimeo.

ASSESSING EFFECTIVENESS IN THE FIELD OF PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION PROGRAMMES IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

by

Dr. Bill Mulford
A Principal Lecturer in Educational Administration
Chairman, Dept. of Adult Learning and Teaching
School of Education
Canberra College of Advanced Education
A.C.T.

INTRODUCTION

It could be argued that there is no one best approach to professional preparation programmes in educational administration. Because each approach is appropriate for some learners, in some settings, and for some content, it could be further argued that the matter is far too complex for meaningful analysis and application. While this may in fact be the case, it would seem to be an abrogation of our responsibility as teachers of educational administration to simply accept such an argument without first making our own attempt to unravel the complexities involved.

Although there is a degree of conflict over the most appropriate paradigm for use in the area of education administration,[1] the content of our subject appears similar across courses offered by different institutions and teachers.[2] What, then, are some of the factors that need to be taken into consideration in assessing the effectiveness of professional development programmes in educational administration?

In what follows, it is not my intention to provide yet another "cook book" on how to evaluate. There is much written in this area that is readily accessible (see for example, Henderson[3]). It is my intention to examine the complexities involved and in so doing to highlight what I consider to be major aspects of what needs to be assessed.

For convenience, let me divide the examination into three interrelated areas--the learners, setting and content.

1. THE LEARNER

What is learnt can often be different from what was intended by the teacher. The learner will respond not only to planned content and activities but also to the skills, strategies, meanings, and values implied as the teacher teaches. As well, the learners themselves will be different.

What are some characteristics of the learner that will help determine different responses to what is taught? The first area examined for answers to this question is that of **stages of adult development.** Particular emphasis is then placed on the issue of **dependence.** Finally, two trends in individual learning, **to master and to belong,** are discussed.

1.1 Stages of Individual Development

A comprehensive review of andragogy (adult learning) and its implications for teacher training can be found elsewhere.[4] For the purposes of this paper, however, it is worth repeating in chart form a highly speculative and tentative attempt to make relationships between adulty personality characteristics and, on the one hand, student learning (such as their motives for education, and the attitudes towards the origin and use of knowledge), and, on the other hand, teaching practices (such as approaches, student-teacher relationships and evaluation).

Four of Loevinger's[5] stages of ego development are used as a base for the adult characteristics in Chart I.[6] These stages are "Self-protective Opportunistic" (I'll do what I'm told to do or whatever I can get away with), "Conformist" (I'll do only what others do, what is expected of me, what is best for my career advancement), "Conscientious" (I'll do what is best for the organization or what the job demands), and "Autonomous" (I'll do what is best for my own development but in so doing will respect others' autonomy and be aware of the need for interdependence between people).

The data concerning developmental stages can help us think more clearly about both content and process. They clarify the larger motives behind the investments of time, money and energy and behind the personal sacrifices made by adult students. They show us the more fundamental purposes that underlie degree aspirations, the pursuit of promotion or a career change, the desire to meet new persons, read more widely, explore new ideas and interests. They remind us that the existential questions of meaning, purpose, vocation, and social responsibility, dependence, human relationships which so many adolescents face with difficulty, are re-confronted by many thirty, forty, and sixty-year-olds.

With such information in our working knowledge we can more effectively distinguish between those whose aim is simply professional training and those people whose professional concerns involve clarification of the major expectations of a job or the career patterns associated with it. We can better recognise that the thirty-five-year-old who comes to educational administration courses for clearly specified professional knowledge or competence, need for promotion or a new opportunity will define a programme and approach it very differently from the forty-five-year-old who wonders whether all those long hours, family sacrifices, shortchanged human relationships and atrophied interests are really worth it. Both of these teachers or educational administrators will be different, as students, from the twenty-five-year-old eagerly exploring the potentials of a first career choice.

With respect to programme evaluation, there is the clear implication that courses that rely on various forms of student feedback should take into account characteristics of respondents in assessing the reasons behind the positive or negative results. For example, is it "good" or "bad"that 25% of respondents disliked your course because they say it was unstructured with not enough lectures from those in charge and that students had too much to say, especially in respect to evaluation?

It would appear that few adults--including educational administrators--naturally progress through the developmental stages. Movement from one developmental stage to the next occurs through cycles of challenge and response, cognitive dissonance, cultural discontinuity, differentiation and integration. It occurs when a person confronts situations for which old ways are not adequate and which require new ways of thinking and acting. The experience may be upsetting and uncomfortable. After all, coping with

CHART I

Four of Loevinger's Ego Development Stages	Motive for Education	What Use is Knowledge?	Where does Knowledge Come From?	Teaching Practices	Student-Teacher Relationships	Evaluation
Self protective opportunitistic	Instrumental: satisfy immediate needs	Education to get means to concrete ends, used by self to obtain effects in world	From external authority from asking how to get things	Lecture-exam	Teacher is authority, transmitter, judge student is receiver, judged	By teacher only
Conformist	Impress significant others gain social acceptance, obtain credentials and recognition	Education to be: social approval appearance, status used by self to achieve according to expectations and standards of significant others	From external authority from asking what others expect and how to do it	Teacher-led dialogue or disucssion Open 'leaderless' learner centred discussion	(as above) Teacher is a 'model' for student identification	By teacher only By teacher and peers
Conscientious	Achieve competence regarding competitive or normative standards; increase capacity to meet social responsibilities	Education to do: competence in work and social roles, used to achieve internalised standards of excellence and to serve society	Personal integration of information based on rational inquiry from setting goals from asking what is needed, how things work, and why	Programmed learning, correspondence study, televised interaction	"Teaching" is an abstraction behind system student a recipient	By system
Autonomous	Deepen understanding of self, world and life cycle, develop increasing capacity to manage own destiny	Education to become: self-knowledge, self development used to transform self and the world	Personal experience and reflection, personally generated paradigms, insights, judgements	Contract learning 1: Time,objectives activities, evaluation, negotiated between student and teacher at the outset and held throughout Contract Learning 2: Time,objectives activities, evaluation, defined generally by student, modifiable with experience	Student defines purposes in collegial relationship with teacher Teacher is resource, contributes to planning and evaluation	By teacher, peer , system, self, teacher final judge By teacher, peers, system, self self final judge

disequilibrium, learning new skills, assimilating new knowledge, and resolving value conflicts does not always happen simply and smoothly. The principle involved here is best illustrated in a learning style based on "transforming" rather than a learning style based on "forming."

Past experience always enters into adult learning. Learning, therefore, focuses on modifying transforming and reintegrating meanings, values, strategies, and skills, rather than on forming and accumulating them as in childhood. The learning processes involved in transformations are different from those involved in formations.[7]

- Transformations require greater input of energy because the body invests considerable energy in maintaining established patterns, which must be overcome first if a pattern is to be transformed.

- Transformations require more time than formations.

- Transformations require that established meanings, values, skills, and strategies be raised to a conscious level and be thoroughly examined before being altered.

- Transformations require that the related new behaviour be tested out in "safe" situations before being put into use in daily life, in order to reduce potential threat to the self.

The task of those responsible for the education of educators seems to be the creation of challenge, dissonance, discontinuity which fosters increased differentiation. It is also necessary to help educational administrators as students to learn effective responses, resolve dissonance and discontinuities so that integration can occur at a higher level of development. The difficulty is achieving that optimal distance between where the student is and what the new situations require so that the student is challenged but not "bowled over;" so that change is possible without provoking trauma, entrenchment, or flight.

The developmental nature of the work on adult stages as well as the material presented later in this paper on stages of group development pose a number of questions for the teacher of educational administration. Perhaps the most important is: does the teacher have a responsibility to develop his or her students through the stages? I think he/she does and would therefore, in assessing the quality of a programme, look for evidence that the approach took such development into account. One quick way of measuring this would be to analyse how the program handled the issue of dependence.

1.2 Always Dependence?

The issue that permeates much of the topic under discussion in this paper is that of student dependence. Factors in the setting of many courses in educational administration make student dependence on the teacher in the initial stages of these courses almost inevitable. Of particular relevance here is the issue of student assessment.

Although most adults when entering a new learning experience do begin with dependent-type behaviours they will, with a good program, move first to independent behaviour and then to interdependent behaviour during the course of the learning activities. The progression can be facilitated by a teacher who is prepared to provide, for example, some structure and direction at the beginning of the learning activities; to move then to encouraging individual activities; and finally to provide opportunities for interdependent activities within the group and for integrative processes for individuals.[8]

On the other hand, if on the basis of his initial response in a class we describe an adult learner as using dependent behaviour, we may come to think of that description as a fixed trait. We would then proceed to treat the student as if he or she were a dependent person and not recognise that the initial behaviour has changed as anxiety has diminished or as he or she has gained mastery of the learning content. At a later date the student may come to resent being treated as a dependent. Or this learner might never move from the initial dependent behaviour and our teaching behaviour would help hold him or her there and deny him or her room to develop independently.[9]

In brief, adult learning behaviours tend to change as a result of increasing familiarity with a learning program, content, or setting. Simultaneously, teaching modes need also to change in response. The predictable sequence of teaching styles will be from directing through facilitating to collaborating. Does the course you are assessing have such a developmental sequence?

One of the problems for many programmes in achieving development is that behaviour involving mastery dominates expected outcomes.[10]

1.3 To Master AND to Belong

Mastery as it is used here relates to feelings of autonomy, to **independent behaviour** within society, and to a sense of personal control over the conditions of one's life. Learnings related to this trend include meanings, strategies, and skills required to function independently and values which reflect positive feelings about oneself as competent and worthwhile. Such learnings lead to a reduction of feelings of helplessness and inferiority and assist in meeting survival, achievement and self-esteem needs. This type of learning responds best to behavioural or task-related feedback.[11]

Belonging behaviour seems less emphasised in educational administration programmes. Belonging behaviour here relates to feelings of affection, to **interdependent behaviour** with other members of society, and to a sense of interpersonal involvement. Learnings related to this trend include personal and shared meanings and values, and the skills and strategies necessary to function interpersonally and cooperatively. Such learnings lead to a reduction of feelings of isolation and alienation and assist in meeting security, belonging, and affiliation needs. This type of learning responds best to feeling-oriented feedback.[12]

The lack of emphasis on belonging behaviour is somewhat surprising given the nature of successful educational administration.

To be brief, the crux of my argument is that for more successful teaching of educational administration there is a need to give greater emphasis to **implementation** and that the most important aspect of effective implementation is **obtaining cooperation among school people.** This, in turn, calls for a strong emphasis on developing understandings and skills in the interpersonal area. There are strong and predictable reasons why effective cooperation in schools is already poor in many schools[13] and will continue to be difficult to achieve.[14] But such a situation does not provide an excuse for the teacher of educational administration to ignore the development of such a vital area--an area clearly recognised as important by both practising educators,[15] students of graduate educational administration programmes,[16] and research which demonstrates positive associations between having a positive collegial group on a programme and superior field ratings and lower attrition rates.[17]

Given these findings, perhaps we teachers of educational administration in assessing the effectiveness of programmes need to take a closer look at the balance in courses between mastery and belonging, that is between understandings and skills focusing on independence and interdependence.

2. THE SETTING

At least three apsects of the setting have implications for those teaching educational administration. The first has to do with courses that include evaluation of participant performance and are thus prone to the **assist/assess dilemma.** The second involves courses whose **participants come from separate organizations** and by so doing make the likelihood of effective "back-home" implementation more difficult. The third revolves around the predominant use of **group teaching** which implies that the course is subject to the dynamics of the group itself.

2.1 "Assist/Assess" Dilemma

Current forms of school-based student assessment, particularly at the end of high school, have encountered the assist/assess dilemma. When teachers are seen as assessors by their students their relationship with them changes. But the same effect can be seen in any relationship between a superior and subordinate, e.g., principal and teacher, inspector and principal, teacher of educational administration and student. Abraham Maslow has highlighted this dilemma for the tertiary teacher in the following way:

> In my early years of teaching I certainly looked at my students and felt very close to them. I learned only slowly that while I could keep my smiles and friendliness and so on separated from the grades, i.e. I could certainly love somebody who wasn't a very good student of psychology, they rarely could accept and understand this. Normally, when I was friends with students they felt I had betrayed them if they got bad grades. They thought of me as a hypocrite, as a turncoat ... slowly I had to give up, until now, especially in large classes, I keep my distance and maintain English-style relationships rather than getting very close and buddy-like.[18]

When the teacher is seen as an assessor by the students a negation of his or her assisting role would seem to occur. Assistance is usually made more difficult by the typical response to the threat of being assessed, the playing of the withdrawal game. This game involves putting as much social distance as possible between superior and subordinate, scrupulously avoiding any kind of genuine personal or expressive behavior. In short, each tries to remain as faceless as possible. Having established the social distance ("English-style relationship"?) the next step is to try to reduce uncertainty by providing as much structure and as many rules as possible.

Underlying much of the possible anguish created by the assist/assess dilemma and the ineffectiveness resulting from the playing of the withdrawal game is the teacher's own attitudes towards the superior/subordinate relationship. Is it tending toward McGregor's Theory X or Theory Y?[19] Is it based on Miles's concept of Human Relations or Human Resources?[20] We need to remember that students will respond not only to planned content and activities but also to the skills, strategies and values implied as the teacher teaches.

I would welcome suggestions on how to overcome the assess/assist dilemma. Perhaps it is not a dilemma for you.

2.2 Students from Different Organizations

Taking individuals out of educational organizations and into courses run by teachers of educational administration is very like taking out one piece of a jig-saw (that is, the organization) and, if the course is successful, changing its shape only to find that it will not fit when returned to the jig-saw. Not ony will the piece not fit but it then has to suffer the anguish and frustration of being "knocked" back into a shape that resembles the original and with which the remainder of the jig-saw can feel comfortable. We Australians are very good at what is called "lopping tall poppies"--bringing the better members of a group back to the level of the rest of the group!

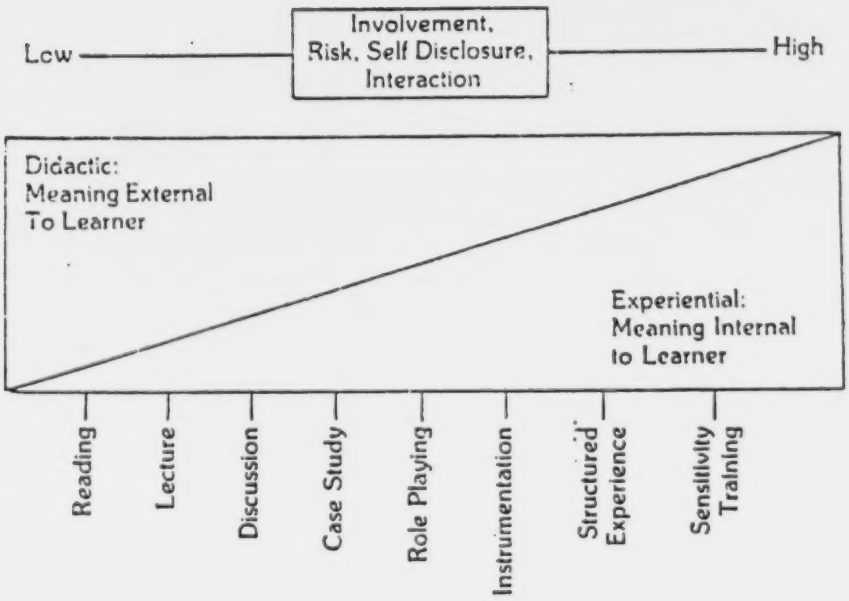
To be judged effective we will need to decide whether a programme has squarely faced the joint issues of responsibility for and the most effective approaches to back-home application of course material. In particular, is assignment work and culminating activities intimately and systematically related to the student's practical context?

Having individuals from different organizations in our courses also poses a dilemma for the teacher in the running of classes. On the one hand, there is evidence to suggest that adults have extensive life experiences which tend to structure and limit new learnings. Adults tend to value their own experience as a rich resource for further learning. On the other hand, most courses only have a limited amount of time at their disposal. Allowing course participants to keep the discussion down to what for them is the least threatening situation, but which I would term the "lowest common denominator" in terms of effectiveness ("You listen quietly while I recount what happens in my school and then ask elaborative-type questions--then I'll do the same for you") can absorb an inordinate amount of time.

One resolve of this dilemma is to make extensive use of teaching approaches that provide students with common frames of reference during class contact time, e.g. structured experiences, simulations, role plays, case studies, and look for the major integration of past and current experiences in assignment work.

Given the strong emphasis in this article on the development of individuals and groups, it is worth pointing out that the use of these "common frames of reference" might need to be carefully planned to meet the current or next stage development. The next section on stages of group development pursues his idea further, but, for now, the following continuum of teaching approaches (Chart 2) might provide a useful checklist not only for alerting us to whether or not common frames of reference are used, but also to the extent of their use and the thought put into their use over the sequence of a programme.

CHART 2



2.3 Group Teaching

The predominant use of group teaching in educational administration should lead assessors of programmes in this subject to examine the awareness and use of group development models and techniques by teachers in running their programmes.

Most task-oriented groups can pass through a number of clearly identifiable and sequential stages of development. More importantly, much can be done to assist a group through to a more effective later stage of "Performing." If left to their own devices some groups may not progress beyond the early, less productive stages of "Forming," "Storming," and "Norming." When "Forming" group members are polite, they avoid conflict, they are concerned about being accepted or rejected and their orientation is towards the task. Then, group members become involved in conflict ("Storming") because of the concerns about status, power and organization. The "pecking order" or "who is good at what" needs to be sorted out. Next, there is more cohesion between members as there is more affection, open-mindedness and willingness to share. However, the pressures to conform to the group ("Norming") may detract from the task at hand. At the fourth stage there is a supportive group climate. Concerns about interdependence and independence are resolved so that both can occur along with the dominant need to solve problems in a creative way ("Performing"). A final stage is "Mourning" which can occur after any of the first four stages and as the group is about to break up. It involves the breaking down of group cohesion as members are more concerned about disengaging from the group and established relationships and reasserting their individuality.[21] It is also the time at which most student feedback on courses is gathered!

As the most effective groups, both in terms of task accomplishment and effective human relationships, are those at the "Performing" stage of development, there would appear to be some responsibility on the part of the teacher to develop his or her groups to this level. Is this evident in the programme you are assessing?

But there is another reason why these stages of group development may be useful in assessing the effectiveness of programmes. It could be argued that the stages of group development closely parallel a necessary sequence, or hierarchy, in teaching the content of educational administration. The necessary base of such a hierarchy is communication which in the main involves resolving the issues of "Forming" and "Storming" and acts as a prerequisite for the next stage--Decision-making. This second stage involves resolving issues not only of "Storming" but also "Norming" e.g. not only consensus but also group think. The third and final stage of Action or implementation involves "Norming" and "Performing."

That is, these three functions--Communicaiton, Decision-making, Action--are not only the foundation stones for effective administration but are themselves, like the stages of group development, also developmental or cumulative in nature. There can be little effective action in schools without effective decision-making and little effective decision-making without effective communication.

If a programme is of a general and perhaps introductory nature then such a hierarchy, Communication--Decision-making--Action, could be used to make some sort of assessment of both its comprehensiveness and the logic in sequence of topics.

3. THE CONTENT

Two of many aspects in assessing the content of programmes are the closeness of fit between learning objectives and teaching approaches and the "reality" of the programme.

3.1 Horses for Courses:

It would seem sensible to suggest that a good programme demonstrates some awareness that certain desired learning outcomes can best be accomplished by certain teaching strategies. For example, Burgoyne and Stuart,[22] as a result of a review of the literature on learning theory and the design of management development programmes, differentiated what they called eight "schools of thought" about learning theory. These "schools of thought,"

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

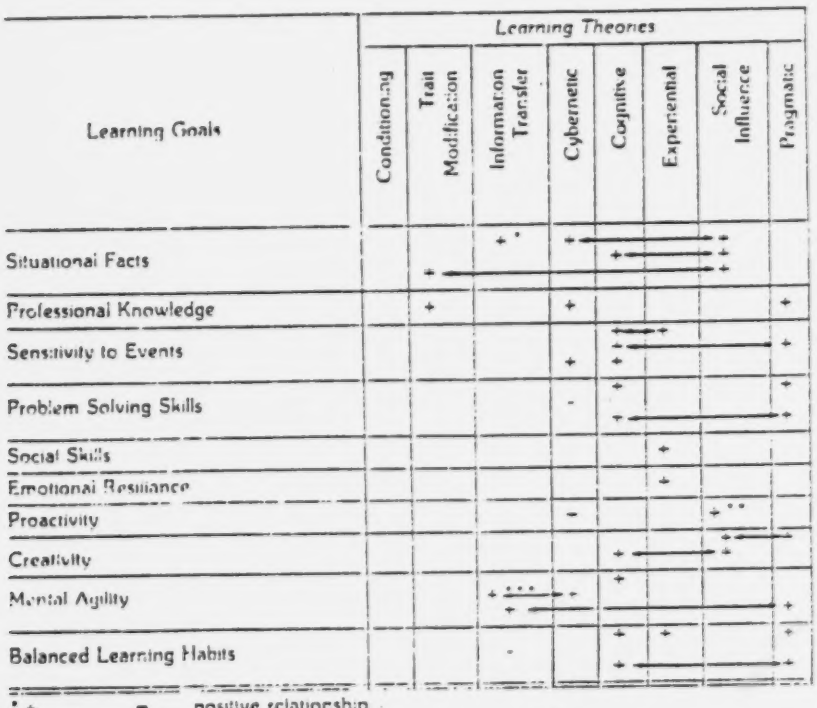
their summary metaphors and an example strategy are described as:

- Conditioning (Telephone Exchange) Programmed Learning
- Trait Modification (Tool Kit) Profiles
- Information Transfer (Library or Filing System) Telling
- Cybernetic (Complex Computer) Simulations
- Cognitive (Navigator with a Personal Map) Learning/Problem Centred Discussion
- Experiential (Like Us) Structured Experiences, Encounter Groups
- Social Influence (Actor with Rights and Responsibilities) Role Playing
- Pragmatic (Learning is Common Sense) Case Studies, Project Work

Burgoyne and Stuart also developed a model of management skills--skills which appeared to equate with successful managerial performance. In brief, ten skills or learning goals are identified: situational facts, professional knowledge, sensitivity to events, problem-solving skills, social skills, emotional resiliance, proactivity, creativity, mental agility, and balanced learning habits.

From their study of fourteen management development programmes,[23] the authors suggest that the nature of learning theories adopted affects the level of, and areas in which, learning outcomes will be those "intended" (or "unintended") by programme organisers. Conclusions on the learning theories that were found appropriate for different kinds of learning goals are summarised in Chart 3 which follows.

CHART 3



Such a chart could perhaps be used as a checklist in assessing the effectiveness of our programmes. But perhaps also, we will need to take into account the fact that we do not live in a totally rational world. As Burgoyne and Stuart point out:

> In a totally rational world, choice would not be problematic. A problem would be observed (for example, a need to develop social skills in managers), alternative means of solving the problem suggested (for example, to do more of what we've done in the past, i.e. five more lectures on communication; or, alternatively, to adopt a different teaching strategy altogether) and a choice would be made (for example, the data ... suggest that an experiential approach offers the best means of achieving a goal of developing social skills in managers). In the real world, however, all kinds of other considerations need to be taken into account, apart from what is the apparent "best" way of achieving a goal. Take the last example, what might be some of the constraints to adopting an experiential approach to social skill development? From talking with some of the management teachers in our sample, it appears that such constraints are numerous and varied. Consideration must be given to precedent, institutional norms of behaviour and conduct available resources and facilities, the expectations of examining bodies, students and their employers, and the reactions of the teacher's peers and colleagues, to name but a few.[24]

If nothing else, the above material should help us question strongly the effectiveness of programmes that rely on single learning modes.

3.2 Reality: Unidimensional? Always Best?[25]

There is no doubt that the need for educational administrator training to be grounded in practical experience and real life situations has become a loud and frequently heard cry. "That sounds fine, but the reality is ...," "... in reality things aren't like that...," "... but when I get back to the real world..." are familiar student comments. The assumption underlying this need is that learning events that are characterised by high reality are also those which maximise the opportunity for "significant" learning, which is more readily transferable to behaviour in the educational administrator's work situation.

Is the link between reality and effective teaching that simple and straightforward? On further reflection, it could be maintained that answers are required to at least three more specific questions. What is meant by "high reality," is reality a uni-dimensional concept in the learning situation, and does it follow that high reality learning events are always the most effective? Let me briefly explore each of these questions.

3.2.1 What is meant by high reality?

It would appear that a learning event is perceived to be of high reality following comparison of the activities of the event with those **past, present** and **conceived future** experiences which the educational administrator has, is, or will shortly be, accruing in his or her work role. Thus, reality is a **subjective** property conferred on a learning event by an individual.

3.2.2 Is reality a uni-dimensional concept in learning situations?

Any learning event can be described in terms of its perceived, subjective reality along at least three dimensions--**content, process and environment.** For example, a discovery based simulation aimed at developed understanding of leadership roles in a group where participants are required to build a tower of Lego bricks may have low content reality, high process reality (in that the decision making process required to achieve an un-real task might be very similar to the decision-making processes the administrator experiences in his or her school or system), and low environment reality (in that the luxurious appointments of the carpeted seminar room compare unfavourably with the stark reality of the school staff room).

But there are also at least three modes of learning each of which gives a unique quality to the reality of learning activities: reception of input (**described**, talked about reality), discovery (**experienced** reality) and reflection (thought about, **contemplated** reality).

Taking account of these dimensions and modes of learning we can construct a reality matrix, as shown below, and use this to closely define the reality of a particular learning event.

Modes of Learning

Dimensions of Learning-Event	Described	Experienced	Contemplated
Content			
Process			
Environment			

Does the matrix work? Well, without the benefit of the modes of learning dimensions of the matrix we might argue that a situation such as a lecture on staff development given in a motel conference room to a group of middle-level educational administrators would be perceived as high on content reality but low on both process and environmental reality. In fact, it might be concluded that most lectures will have low process and environmental reality and therefore transfer of learning will be poor. There is, however,an inconsistency in this analysis that the matrix can help to correct.

The content reality in the above example is based on the perceived reality of what is being **described**, whereas process and environmental reality are based on what is being **experienced**. To be consistent we have to associate reality with the modes of learning which are being used.

Process and environmental reality could be high in the example being used if, for example, the lecturer vividly describes some human interaction and transports us from our seat to actually reliving the scene in a familiar school.

3.2.3 Does it follow that high reality learning events are always the most efficient?

Are there certain situations where high reality events would appear inappropriate and often dysfunctional? There may sometimes be good cause to move away from reality in our teaching of educational administration. For example, high reality learning events would appear to be inappropriate and often dysfunctional when there is a need for **growth** rather than maintenance oriented learning and where there is sufficient **threat** invoked in a high reality situation for it to be a barrier to learning.

Extreme high reality may lock the learner into current and past experience and curtail visions of a different future. Techniques such as those involving playing of unfamiliar roles might allow an educational administrator to consider radical alternatives, behaviour, ideas, etc. A similar outcome might result from the use of structured experiences, simulations, role reversal, using unfamiliar case studies (e.g. from other countries), problem-solving in small support groups, and personal or group growth activities.

Too high a reality may also threaten an individual learner's comfortable, reconciled views of himself or herself and his or her administrative work. A non-accepting and unsupportive learning climate might inhibit rather than encourage self-revelation and change.

We must be careful not to automatically equate low reality with low threat. It is quite possible to threaten learners in a low reality event, if the learning process is itself threatening or unfamiliar to the learner, e.g. many Sensitivity Training exercises that focus on the individual's personality or even videotaping seminar performance for later playback and group analysis.

We must also not forget that ultimately the learner must return to high reality when he or she resumes work. Thus while low reality designs would appear to be necessary in the earlier stages of a course, there will eventually be a need to include consideration of how to help learners back to high reality.

As one of the aims of this Caribbean symposium is to explore issues related to the professional preparation and development of educational administration in developing areas of the world, an important aspect of reality relates to the relevance of "developed" country theory and practice for developing countries.

Kiggundu et al[26] reviewed 94 articles on organizations in developing countries. They found articles that focussed on the technical and organizational "core" of an organization, that is on a closed system, were most likely to find no significant problems in the use of Western theory in developing countries. The authors suggested that this occurs because the articles concentrate on the technical, that is such things as organization development, budgeting and use of computers, which require internal organizational expertise and little interaction with the environment.

However, those articles that focussed on the organization's relationship with its environment were more likely to find serious difficulties in the use of Western ideas thus necessitating major adjustments to "conventional" theory. Cultural, economic and political/institutional factors were all considered as aspects of the "environment".

Some of the more specific reasons for weak fit due to the culture factor were:

- Deep personal insecurity dominated by formalism, ritualism, paper fetish and amoral familialism ...

- Caste system, religious taboos, differing concepts of time, deep rooted traditions of centralization and informality ...

- Trade practices, friendship patterns, cultural norms and expectations, patriotism ...

- Extended-family concept and kinship relations, authority of the elder, collective responsibility ...

- Smoothing mode of conflict resolution, closer emotional interactions ...

- Corruption, elitism, and status related to personal and group alignment rather than merit ... [27]

Specific economic factors included abundant labour supply yet shortage of skilled labour and professionals, monopolistic patterns, "infant industries," rapid change, and a combination of small size, lack of specialization and lack of competition.[28]

Developing countries were seen to generally have highly centralized governments, large public sectors, and a small middle class. Kiggundu et al also suggests that political influence and corruption undermine managerial action and that this leads to management by crisis in developing countries.[29]

While so called developed countries cannot claim to be free of these characteristics, Kiggundu et al's conclusion remains relevant (emphasis in original):

> In general, each time the environment is involved, the theory developed for Western settings does not apply, because it assumes contingencies that may not be valid for developing countries. In these situations, utilization must be preceded by a situational analysis to identify the relevant contingencies and their interrelationships. To the extent that contingencies for the utilization of administration science in developing countries differ from those in industrialized countries, the transfer of management knowledge and technology (e.g. management development, curriculum development, technical assistance) should emphasize process rather than content theories ... and methods.[30]

CONCLUSION

This article has attempted to set down some thoughts on factors to consider in assessing the effectiveness of programmes in educational administration. It has delved briefly into three interrelated aspects: the learners and their stages of individual development, their tendency toward initial dependence, and their needs to master and belong; the setting, particularly such factors as assessment, the inclusion of students from different organizations, and group teaching; the content with respect to how different learning objectives might be met by different teaching approaches and its reality.

It is concluded that teachers of educational administration have a responsibility to develop their students to higher levels of individual and group development. In **developing individual learners**, nowever, care needs to be taken to base teaching approaches on adult learning principles. The essence of these principles revolves around the point that adult learners are involved with transformations, as opposed to formations, in their learning. In contrast to formations, transformations require more time and greater effort. They also require that established meanings and values be raised to conscious level and that new behaviours have a chance to be tested in "safe" situations before being adopted.

Awareness of adult learning principles should also result in changes in teaching styles as the student develops. Particularly important are changes in teaching approaches to ensure that the student does not remain dependent on the teacher. A sequence of teaching styles is suggested ("directing--facilitating--collaborating") as a stimulus to further discussion.

Spending time in developing educational administration classes through the early and less productive stages of **group development**, that is "Forming--Storming--Norming," and into the "Performing" stage will also have benefits for the learners. Not only will benefits accrue in the area of mastery of course content, but also students will gain greater understanding and skills in a most vital area of educational administration, the interpersonal.

Developing understandings and skills in the interpersonal area, working with and through other people should help the student of educational administration to more effectively cope with a somewhat neglected area in the teaching of the subject, the **effective implementation** of learnings in his or her own educational setting.

Group teaching is, however, subject to much of the limited course time being wasted in unproductive student discussions with the "lowest common denominator" predominating. Careful consideration needs to be given by the teacher of educational administration to approaches that provide students with a **common frame of reference**, for example, case studies, structured experiences and role playing. It is suggested that such approaches might be used at different stages in a course depending on their inherent threat or risk and the student's ability to cope with this threat or risk.

It is further concluded that, as students are likely to pick up as much learning from the way a course is taught as from what is taught, it is important for **the teachers of educational administration to be very clearly aware of their own attitudes** toward the superior/subordinate relationship. This is of particular significance in teacher/student interactions, in the continued dependence of the student on the teacher, as well as in the "assist/assess" dilemma and its concomitant "withdrawal game." Teachers of educational administration need to be careful that action by or demanded of them at the early states of a course does not negate development to later stages of individual and group development.

It is concluded that a fertile field for further examination in the teacher of educational administration lies in the **matching of course objectives and teaching strategies** along the lines commenced by Burgoyne and Stuart.

Finally, it is concluded that "reality" is not a unidimensional concept of the learning situation and that high reality learning events are not always the most efficient. Any learning event needs to be analysed along at least three dimensions--content, process and environment--and three learning modes --described, experienced and contemplated. In addition, low reality learning designs may be necessary in the early stages of a course to help a student break a maintenance orientation or overcome the possible threat invoked by a high reality situation.

An analysis of the "reality" of theory and practice from so called developed countries for developing countries suggested that focussing on the technical and organization core of an organization facilitates a transfer of learning. However, concentrating on the organization's relationship with the cultural, economic and political/institutional environment necessitates major adjustments to developed country theory and practice. It was concluded that utilization of developed country theory and practice must be preceded by a situation analysis to identify the relevant contingencies and their interrelationships. Emphasis should be on process rather than content theories and methods.

For convenience, the majority of these conclusions could be formed into a checklist for assessing the effectiveness of professional development programmes in educational administration. Such a checklist is appended to this paper.

Writing in a confessional vein, Reddin[31] explains that as a change agent (teacher of educational administration?) he has been attached to different organizations (classes?) as "servant, master, captive behavioural scientist, visiting professor, tame seal, and resident magician." He adds, "I sometimes have to remind my clients that I have not walked on water recently. Sometimes I have to remind myself." The two points made by Reddin, the overdependence of the student on the teacher and the over-confidence of the teachers of educational administration in their own abilities and importance, are indeed salutory ones. Both issues have been emphasised in this paper, the former explicitly and the latter implicitly. In respect of the latter it is only when we expect of ourselves what we expect of our students, that is that performance comes to depend not only on intuitive skill or "art" but also on explainable techniques and procedures, that we will transform a craft into a profession.

REFERENCES

[1]In broad terms, this conflict would seem to focus on the difference between --on the one hand--the singular, qualitative, subjective, and meaningful, and --on the other--the aggregative, qualitative, objective, and probabilistic. See, for example, Herda, E. "Implications of a Critical Discussion in Educational Administration Thoery: The Griffiths/Greenfield Debate Examined from a Philosophy of Science Perspective," unpublished doctoral dissertation, (Eugene, Oregon: University of Oregon, 1978).

[2]See for example, Shinkfield, A. "Alternative Ways of Training Educational Administrators" in Alternative Ways of Organization Education, (ACEA, 1980), p. 115.

[3]Henderson, E., The Evaluation of In-Service Teaching Training, (Croom Helm, 1978).

[4]Mulford, W., "Andragogy and Some Implications for Teacher Educators" in Mulford, W. et al. A.C.T. Papers on Education 1978-79. (Canberra: Canberra College of Advanced Education, 1979), pp. 153-171.

[5]Loevinger, J. Ego Development, (San Francisco: Jossey-Bass, 1976).

[6]One of the many other developmental area or stage (events, morals, ego, or cognition) theorists could have been employed as the base. See Mulford, op.cit., for a summary of these other theorists.

[7]Brundage, D. and MacKeracher, D., Adult Learning Principals and Their Application to Program Planning. (Ontario: Ministry of Education, 1980), p. 33.

[8]Ibid., p. 21.

[9]Ibid., p. 55.

[10]See the many papers in Farquhar, R. and Housego, I. (eds.), Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration, (Vancouver: Education Extension, Centre for Continuing Education, The University of British Columbia, 1980). For example, Hill, J., "Critical Issues in the Preparation of Educational Administrators in North America" p. 233.

[11]Brundage and MacKeracher, op.cit., p. 13.

[12]Ibid.

[13]Elaborated in Mulford, W., "Consulting with Education Systems is About the Facilitation of Co-ordinated Effort" in H. Gray (ed.), The Management of Educational Institutions: Practice, Consultancy, Research, (London: Falmer, 1981), and includes evidence from Australian studies by: Hearn, P. and Ogilvie, D. "Operation Stocktake" Administrator's Bulletin, 4,3, (1973); Campbell, J. et. al., Some Consequences of the Radford Scheme for Schools, Teachers and Students in Queensland, AACRDE Report No. 7, (Canberra: AGP, 1976); Mulford, W., "Two ACT High Schools and Their Responses to the Criteria for a Good School Questionnaire" in Mulford, W. et. al (eds.), ACT Papers on Education 1975-76, (Canberra College of Advanced Education, 1976), pp. 7-10; Mulford, W. and Zinkel, C., "Assisting School Evaluation: Four ACT Schools and Their Responses to the Criteria for a Good School Questionnaire" in Mulford, W., et at., (eds.), ACT Papers on Education 1976-77, (Canberra: Canberra CAE, 1977), pp. 130-137; Ogilvie, D., "Organized Climate in Six High Schools" Administrator's Bulletin, (1975), 6,3.

[14]Elaborated in Mulford, 1981, Ibid, and based on factors such as school reward structures, physical structures, use of professionals, multiple goals and processes, assist/assess dilemma in operation, and stages of individual teacher and staff development.

[15]See, for example Martin, R., "Skills and Understandings Considered by Administrators and Teachers to be Essential to the Role of the Educational Administrator." Interim Report to ACEA Board, (August 1980); and Ogilvie, D. and Bartlett, L. "Departmental Heads in England and Australia: Some Comparisons," CCEA Studies in Educational Administration, (15 June 1979). See also, McRae, K., "Observing a Principal at Work" in Mulford, W. et. al. (eds.), Papers on ACT Education 1974-75, (Canberra College of Advanced Education, 1975); O'Dempsey, K., "Time Analysis of Activities, Work Patterns and Roles of High School Principals," Unpublished M.Ed. Adm. thesis, (University of Queensland, 1976); Willis, Q., "The Work Activity of School Principals: An Observational Study," The Journal of Educational Administration, 18, 1, 1980, pp. 27-54.

[16]Steinhoff, C. and Bishop, L. "Factors Differentiating Preparation Programs in Educational Administration: CEA Study of Student Organizational Environment," Educational Administration Quarterly, 10, 2, (1974), pp. 35-50.

Similar conclusions were reached by a number of North American doctoral dissertations as summarised by Briggs, D. and O'Brien, P., "In-Service Preparation of Teachers for Administrative Responsibility," The South Pacific Journal of Teacher Education, 4,3, (1976), pp. 244-251, which investigated the opinions of graduates concerning the educational administration programmes through which they had passed. In the words of Briggs and O'Brien (p. 248), "The emphasis thus was on personal relationships amongst staff and students, personal involvement by students in designing their own programmes, flexibility and individuality, problem solving, and a substantial component of field-work or internship." Shinkfield, op.cit. p. 120, also lists skills in human relationships as being of prime importance.

[17]Stern, as reported in Steinhoff and Bishop, op. cit., p. 48.

[18]Maslow,A. Eupsychian Management: A Journal, (Homewood Illinois: Richard Irwin and Dorsey, 1965), p. 177.

[19]McGregor, D., "The Human Side of Enterprise" in Adventures in Thought and Action, (M.I.T.), 1957, pp. 23-30.

[20]Miles, R., "Human Relations or Human Resources," Harvard Business Review, (Summer, 1965).

[21]Taken from Mulford, W., Vallee, J. and Watson, H., Structured Experiences and Group Development, (Canberra: Curriculum Development Centre, 1981).

[22]See: Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R., "Implicit Learning Theories as Determinants of the Effects of Management Development Programmes," Personal Review, 6,2, (1977); Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R. "The Learning Goals and Outcomes of Management Development Programmes," Personnel Review, 6,1, (1977); Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R. "The Nature, Use and Acquisition of Managerial Skills and Other Attributes," Personnel Review, 5,4, (1976); Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R., "Teaching and Training Skills for Translating Learning Theory into Practice in Management Development Programmes," Personnel Review, 6,3, (1977), p. 89-47; Burgoyne, J. and Stuart, R., "Teaching and Learning Methods in Management Development," Personnel Review, 7,1, (1978), pp. 53-58.

[23]An important point about the form they adopted for describing learning theory assumptions was that it relied on three levels of analysis: Philosophy of a Programme; Strategy (or sequence); and Methods (or tactics). This approach helps overcome the possible differences between what course organisers and documents espouse and what actually happens.

[24]Ibid., (1977), p. 41.

[25]This section is based on work by Binstead and Stuart. See Binstead, D. and Stuart, R., "Designing 'Reality' Into Management Learning Events," Personnel Review, 8,3, (1979), pp. 12-19; 8,4, (1979), pp. 5-9; and 9,1, (1980), pp. 12-18.

[26]Kiggundu, M.N., Jorgensen, J.J., and Hafsi, R., "Administrative Theory and Practice in Developing Countries: A Synthesis," Administrative Science Quarterly, 28, (March, 1983), pp. 66-84.

[27]Ibid., pp. 78-79.

[28]Ibid., p. 79.

[29]Ibid.

[30]Ibid., p. 81.

[31]Reddin, W., "Confessions of an Organization Change Agent," Group and Organization Studies, 2,1, (1977), pp. 33-41.

CHECKLIST FOR ASSESSING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMMES IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

1. Do courses take into account characteristics of respondents in assessing the reasons behind feedback?

2. Does the approach used take responsibility for developing participants through the stages of individual development?

3. Does it do this in such a way that the participant is challenged but not "bowled over"--so that change/development occurs without trauma, entrenchment or flight?

4. Does the programme contain a sequence that results in a movement of students from dependence to independence to interdependence e.g. by using teaching styles in the sequence of directing through facilitating to collaborating?

5. Is there a balance in the programme's expected outcomes between mastery and belonging behaviour?

6. Does the programme contain an awareness of or attempts to overcome the assess/assist dilemma?

7. Is there evidence showing the use of common frames of reference where there are participants from different organizations?

8. Is there evidence that these approaches take into account the stage of development of the individual and group?

9. Does the programme demonstrate awareness and use of group development models and techniques?

10. Have the participants in the programme achieved the "Performing" level of group development?

11. If the programme is of a general and introductory nature does it cover the three basic areas of Communication, Decision-making and Action?

12. Does it do this in such a way to recognise the sequential/hierarchical nature of these areas?

13. Does the programme demonstrate awareness of different learning outcomes?

14. Does the programme demonstate awareness and use of different teaching strategies?

15. Does the programme attempt to match learning outcomes with the most appropriate teaching strategies?

16. Is there a realization in the programme that "reality" is a multi-dimensional concept in learning skills?

17. Is there an appropriate use of low-reality approaches e.g. when there is a need for growth or where there is sufficient threat from high reality for it to be a barrier to learning?

18. Is there consideration of how to help learners back to high reality?

19. Does the programme use theory and practice from developed countries and if so does it

    --restrict itself to the technical and organization core of organizations?

    --precede its use by a situational analysis to identify the relevant contingencies and their interrelationships?

THE STUDY OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION: A DEVELOPMENTAL POINT OF VIEW[1]

by

J. Anthony Riffel
University of Manitoba

14 June 1985

"To put away one's original thoughts in order to take up a book is the sin against the Holy Ghost."

Schopenhauer

This is an essay about educational administration and "development." The immediate impetus for writing it came from an invitation to participate in a seminar on educational administration in developing areas, with emphasis on the Commonwealth Caribbean. Thus the familiar meaning of the term "development" which I first brought to this essay: the process of transferring patterns of thought, motivation and action from one area or country to another.

As I began to write the essay, however, I recalled that as ideas move from one place to another they become different, sometimes subtly, sometimes profoundly: they are transformed, not merely transferred. And it struck me that these transformations are similar to those which have taken place over time in the study of educational administration. Toynbee once characterized civilization as a "movement ... and not a condition, a voyage and not a harbor."[2] So it is with the development of thought and fields of study. The essence of understandings with improved practice, not the acquisition of a deterministic set of characteristics or a mere shift from one state to another. This became the broader and more important meaning of the term "development on which this essay is built.

Development: A Conversation

Imagine, if you will, the following conversation about international development and relations between persons from developed and developing countries.

A Travelling Academic Consultant: I've really enjoyed my stay in your country. Thank you very much.

A Host Country Civil Servant: We have appreciated your visit. Thank you for your help.

Academic: Really, in quiet moments I sometimes think that you worked with me only because it was a condition of Canadian aid.

Host: We talked about that ritual before, didn't we?

Academic: Yes. In any case, I have learned more than I have taught ...

Academic: Do you know that your country really has a lot of potential. I must say that, when I came here I did not know what to expect. But I was pleasantly surprised. So many people have advanced training. There are even graduates from Oxford and Cambridge!

Host: Yes.

Academic: But still, you seem to have a long way to go. This could be a really exciting place if people weren't so "laid back" and, quite frankly, inefficient.

Host: Our last Canadian consultant said the same thing.

Academic: Are we right?

Host: Maybe you just see the world in the same way! ...

Academic: The thing that struck me most about your country is its schizophrenia. On the job, people are extremely formal. It is always Mr. or Mrs. this and Dr. that. Off the job, those same people are very relaxed and spontaneous with each other. It is as if they are different people.

Host: I don't like the word schizophrenia, but I have seen what you are describing.

Academic: Have you? Then why don't you do something about it? This separation is dysfunctional. People would like their work a lot more and the government would operate much more effectively if the gap were not so great.

Host: Perhaps.

Academic: Not perhaps! Everything I know confirms how important this is.

Host: You North American academics are too close to organizations and their managers. Ever since Roethlisberger and Dixon found out that organizations could be more productive with the support of informal staff groups. social relations among workers have been manipulated to some organizational purpose. You are interested in studies of motivation and psychology because of a concern for productivity, not out of an interest in improving people's lives.

Academic: Now that is going too far, don't you think?

Host: No. Your organizations, your bureaucracies, have become your lives. Not here. Here our lives are really lived apart from organizations.

Academic: Oh?

Host: But there is more. Government bureaucracy has always had a negative image for us. This is because the only government organizations were foreign bureaucracies which symbolized our status--first as slaves or displaced workers and then as colonials. Even though we now direct those bureaucracies, we continue to think of them in the same way. We dislike them. That is why we are so formal--we refuse to get too involved with them, we separate ourselves from them, we make them unreal, and we mock them. What you call schizophrenia serves us very well. It keeps us sane.

Academic: I hear what you are saying. But I am not sure I really understand.

Host: Good. Now you and I are making progress ....

Host: But I sometimes wish I could say the same thing about my country. When we achieved our political independence twenty years ago our hopes were high and we believed we could achieve them. Now it is much harder to be so confident.

Academic: How would you like me to help?

Host: Let us find our own way before I answer that question.

Perspective

The words, and the images and relationships behind the words, in this conversation are central to the question, "Are theory and research in educational administration transferable to developing countries?" This is because the conversation illustrates: the historical and cultural location of the key assumptions in any view of organizations and their management; the problematic nature of those assumptions when they are considered for use in some other location; and, consequently, the problematic nature of the relationships of people from different places, including relationships between people from "developed" and "less developed" or "developing" countries. All of this is familiar to anyone who has experienced the pleasures, frustrations and intellectual growth that can accompany working with people from other places.

What is less familiar and will be the substance of this paper is that this conversation is also a metaphor for the development of theory and research in educational administration. This is because it shows theory and research in our field in a developmental perspective, illustrating that more complex, differentiated and valid conceptions of educational administration can only be accomplished though a critical analysis of our current theories and assumptions and that dissonance or uncertainty is an important stimulus to this analysis.[3] The conversation also implies an emerging sense of relativism which is necessary for the further development of our field.

At the same time, I will argue that this sense of relativism, however useful and important it has been, is not sufficient to the continuing development of

educational administration as a field of study or practice. Simple or naive relativism is not workable, either intellectually or emotionally, for any person who is engaged with practical affairs. Life, thought and work must be focussed by some commitments, that is values or interests with which we identify and which are chosen within an awareness of relativism.[4] Seen in this light, the further development of educational administration requires both a critical analysis of current theory and research and an examination of the commitments to which they are attached. These will be normative and ethical undertakings as well as social-scientific ones. The result, I hope, will be theory of a different kind: partly empirical and partly moral; partly sympathetic and partly critical; and always concerned with the accomplishment, through deliberation, practice and the just use of power, of the best traditions of the culture in which it is located.

Educational Administration as a Field of Study: A Brief History

Seen up close, as when one reads texts, journals, dissertations or abstracts, educational administration seems too diffuse or inchoate to be called properly a field of study, too full of opinion and speculation to be termed a discipline. There appears to be no body of knowledge to define it, no common methodology to shape it. Yet from another and more distant vantage point, which offers a somewhat overgeneralized but still useful perspective, the many different studies and approaches in the field seem held together by near unanimity on a small number of common assumptions. Four of these are most important.

One, educational organizations are, potentially at least, socially useful. They have become instruments of public policy and social progress, however these are defined at various times and in different places.

Two, the study of education administration is best located within the traditions of the social sciences. These traditions were shaped by the Renaissance belief in our capacity to control our environments through observation and reason and by nineteenth century liberalism's views of rational government. Comte was perhaps the first to envision the sociologist as the priest of a new rational order, but he was by no means the last. Lasswell put the case for the social sciences, and for scientifically organized knowledge as a primary basis for social action, this way:

> In common with any branch of social and political science, psychology bears an instrumental relationship to morals and politics .... The spectacle of frustrated moral intention is familiar in the ordinary experiences of ... life .... Moral intentions call for more than self-knowledge. They must be implemented by reliable knowledge of the attitudes of other people through time and of the factors that affect them ....

> If our moral intention is to realize a democratic society, we need a science of democracy to implement the goal .... Our aim ... is nothing less than to give hands and feet to morality, to discern with ever increasing accuracy the causes and controls of human destructiveness. Moral values are acquired from the experience of human nature in contact with culture; they are derived from a specialized branch of culture, metaphysics and theology; they are implemented by other specialized branches of culture, psychological, social and political science, and psychological, social and political practice.[5]

Three, following the social sciences in the United States and under the early influence of positivists such as Feigl,[6] the study of educational administration is properly guided by an interest in: formal, verifiable hypotheses derived from theory; and a view of theory which is detached from personal commitment, objectified, highly rationalized, and restricted in scope.

Taken together and mutually reinforcing each other, these first three assumptions lead to a fourth: a particular view of educational organizations and of how social and educational progress were to be achieved. Goal-directedness, efficiency, effectiveness, functional behavior and directive leadership are primary virtues, to be given theoretical support and empirical bases.

These four assumptions, and not some particular theoretical formulation or body of knowledge, have been the theory movement in educational administration, its raison d'etre and inspiration.

The theory movement served professors and researchers of educational administration very well from its beginnings in the late 1950's until the early 1970's. Most universities established graduate programs in the area; an academic ethos influenced the field; journals were created; research grew in volume and quality; researchers linked themselves to government agencies which agreed to fund their work. Educational research and development centers were created across North America. A great deal was accomplished, or so it seemed at the time.

For a variety of reasons, this rate of accomplishment could not be sustained. By the early 1970's enthusiasm for research and development in education had begun to wane: in Canada, for example, persistent rumors began to circulate about the future of the Ontario Institute for Studies in Education and the Alberta Human Resources Research Council was disbanded in 1972. In the "parent" disciplines, especially sociology, fundamental criticisms of the disciplines' methods and conclusions began to surface; critics such as Mills[7] and Gouldner,[8] who wrote but were largely ignored in the 1950's and 1960's were given a long-postponed hearing and were soon joined by others.

It was in this context that Greenfield[9] presented his important critique of methodology and the values inherent in the theory movement in educational administration. Drawing upon work in the phenomenological tradition, Greenfield argued that by virtue of their preferences in theory and methods, scholars in educational administration had produced theories which represented a superficial and distorted conception of educational organizations and a very faulty picture of the individual within them. Quite predictably, the reaction against Greenfield was immediate, intense and acrimonious.

The self-criticism in which Greenfield played a central role was not to be halted. While most theorists were unwilling to concede Greenfield's most important points, a number of others asserted that the theory movement in educational administration had been unproductive: Halpin[10] wrote about "the fumbled torch" and lamented the failure of the theory movement to live up to its early promise; Iannacone,[11] about "the smoggy view from the valley" and the difficulties of interdisciplinary, theory-guided research in educational administration; and Erickson,[12] about "how to get the idiot off the freeway" and the reluctance of administrative theorists in education to attend to problems of organizing teaching and learning in schools.

The main consequence of this self-criticism to date has been a sense of pluralism and relativism about the methods of research in educational administration, often reflected in assertions about the value of multiple methods and different perspectives. Although a positivist image of theory and research in educational administration is still strong (and, perhaps, growing more so because of recent interest in effective schools), phenomenological and critical views have gained credibility, especially in parts of England, Australia and Canada. While the debate has subsided somewhat, the dualisms and issues which can divide theorists are now widely familiar: objective versus subjective views of social reality; hypotheses derived from theory versus propositions obtained through reflection on experience, quantitative versus qualitative approaches to methodology.[13]

Commitment and Its Consequences for Theoretical Work in Educational Administration

But, the debate has been limited and the resulting pluralism has been confined largely to technique. Other assumptions of the theory movement--particularly those about formal theory as the primary basis of administrative action, and administractive action as goal-directed efficiency--have been left in the background of the debate. The central position of this paper is that, if the debate is ultimately to become fruitful, it must be extended to include simultaneously critical attention to these other assumptions. This is because concern for epistemology and technique is illusory when it neglects attention to purposes. And if social critics such as Berger[14] or Hummel[15] are correct, exclusive concern with technique is also dangerous, because to keep it in the

foreground and relegate other concerns to a rather blurred and unexamined background is ultimately to distort the whole picture by allowing: means to replace ends as ultimate norms; cases to replace persons; effectiveness to replace ethics; functions to replace action; and command to replace dialogue.[16] It is to distort our images of ourselves.

It is clear, then, that I value moral concern as well as thoughtfulness: I cannot maintain for long a posture of detachment when confronted by the moral urgencies of a situation. For example, while I can be reflective about their origins and what might be done about them, I simply cannot be neutral on matters of inequality, alienation or oppression. To be fully human requires action as well as reflection, compassion as much as reason, determination and skill as much as understanding.

And so I bring us to questions of reflection and action, of ethics and authority, of morality and the just use of power. We also come to our images of ourselves--the values with which we choose to identify and which we choose to pursue. And we confront what development (whether of theory or of persons) really means: enlarging our perspectives, recognizing the cross-currents of life, being committed while tentative, affirming our values while respecting those of others, believing in our basic values but yet being willing to learn, valuing intelligence and action, and seeing development as a journey which all of us retrace over and over--I hope--more wisely each time.[17]

Moving morality and the just use of power along with epistemology to the foreground of our thinking about administrative action in education--in effect creating an approach to our work which is empirical as well as moral and concerned with the just use of power to accomplish the best traditions in our cultures--will reshape the nature of theoretical work in educational administration. Our work will be given meaning and direction by broadened ideas about the nature of intellectual activity in educational administration and an enlarged conception of our subject matter.

Ethics and Reflection: Broadening Intellectual Activity in Educational Administration

Although we all know it well in everyday life, when we struggle with making sense of the contradictions between our desires and our actual accomplishments, too little is formally known in the social sciences about the approach to intellectual activity in educational administration for which I am arguing in this essay. Yet there are exemplars--Dewey,[18] Mills,[19] Myrdal,[20] Weber,[21] Berger,[22] and others. All share a humane vision of the social sciences, a commitment to social justice, a willingness to expose their core values to analysis and debate, a high level of regard for those whose lives they reflect upon and become engaged with, and a fine sense of intellectual craftmanship. It is these qualities which we should seek to emulate.

As we move toward a way of thinking about educational administration that is more useful to practical, ethical purposes, the nature of our intellectual activity is broadened. We begin to move away from a posture which is largely theoretical and restricted in scope to another which is more broadly reflective and more encompassing of human thought and experience. Of the features which accompany such a broader perspective, I believe six to be the most important.

One is the recognition, in both practical and intellectual affairs, that knowledge (including formal epistemology), evaluation (morality) and action (especially, I will argue later, the just use of power) are inseparable. Lewis' statement on this matter is the clearest:

> Knowledge, action and evaluation are essentially connected. The primary and pervasive significance of knowledge lies in its guidance of action: knowing is for the sake of doing. And action, obviously, is rooted in evaluation. For a being which did not assign comparative values, deliberate action would be pointless; and for one which did not know, it would be impossible.[23]

Two, to the extent that it can be considered separately, the task of reflection or anlaysis is to inquire into these values and their realization in practice: what they mean, whether we are really motivated by them, what we are doing in relation to them, whether we could do better, whether our action on them is unbalanced or have unanticipated consequences, and so on. The purpose of analysis achieved through methods which are sympathetic and critical is to clarify human purposes and to seek alternative possibilities for accomplishing them more wisely and completely.

Three, that analysis is best conducted within an atmosphere based on equality of regard, with emphasis on reason and persuasion, not coercion or the presumption that some persons' postions are more valid or less distorted than those of others. No group of persons, including social scientists, can be assumed to have greater capacity for detaching themselves from their interests or desires than others.[24]

Four is the appreciation of the historical, cultural and institutional locations of our work. I mean here an attitude of critical self-awareness. Theory and research can only be understood through an examination of the intellectual history that has shaped the theoretical and research inquiry. Researchers also have personal and institutional histories. Most of us at this seminar are university professors--this fact determines very much what we seek to accomplish and what we are able to do. We cannot detach ourselves from the intermeshing of history and culture with our lives, the institutions in which we work and our place (including roles and status) within them.

Five is the awareness that the purpose of our work is our continuing development, not simply the accumulation of theory or knowledge. Here development means the ongoing acquisition of: more complex, differentiated and valid conceptions of ourselves and our environments and of extended conceptions of beauty, goodness and truth; and commitment, motivation and skill to act on the basis of these conceptions. Without the conjunction signified by the italicized "and," development simply will not be complete. We know from Piaget's work on human development that it is the constant interplay of thought and action, of experience and its reconstruction in thought to guide future experience, which leads to development.[25] This is true of theory as well--unless it is brought to application and refined or reconstructed through practice, it will remain arid or, as more commonly put, "academic".

Six, the direction of our work is by the best values of the culture in which we are located. While it is obvious that there will be reasonable disagreement about the content and meaning of these values, I do not believe that the matter is, or for that matter can be, completely relative. For example, I believe that rational persuasion is superior to coercion, that personal freedom should be extended and that each individual's claim to freedom is equal to that of every other individual. In a sense, because I am not able to demonstrate logically the ultimate correctness of these views, I cannot argue that these represent more than articles of personal faith. And yet I know that they are more than this--I wish that I could use the German, "Ich verstehe," here because it would communicate simultaneously that I understand them intellectually and I believe them to be right. They are part of the liberal intellectual tradition of western society and shared by many people, though far from all. Perhaps they are best characterized as ideas which, while not absolute, are worth living by.

In a sense these points, aimed at enlarging the perspectives of those who "always know the score but never the game being played,"[26] are underlaid by a conception of intellectual work in educational administration as an ethically-informed reflection upon and engagement with practical affairs, sensitive to problems of power in the theory-practice relationship. In this conception I take Schutz's "true for all practical purposes"[27] rather than "truth" or "isomorphism" as the most important criterion for assessing our work. Indeed, in the social sciences I regard truth, if by it we mean knowing for certainty and objectivity the attributes and operation of a social world, to be an impossibility. Our "knowledge" of the social world is too nested in culture, our models too contradictory, our data too open to alternative interpretations, to believe otherwise. Bateson is persuasive:

> Science probes, it does not prove .... All experience is subjective .... Our brains make the images we think we "perceive" .... The division of the perceived universe into parts and whole is convenient and may be necessary, but no necessity determines how it shall be done .... Logic is a poor model of cause and effect .... Language stresses only one side of any interaction.[28]

"True for all practical purposes" does not seem a neat criterion by which to judge intellectual activity. This is because it does not provide the phantom of an external standard for measurement and justification. Rather, it calls for people to answer questions of validity both for themselves and together with others, in the contexts of their experience and purposes. But we do have James' criterion:

> Test every concept by the question, "What sensible difference to anybody will its truth make?" and you are in the best possible position for understanding what it means for discussing its importance .... Any idea that helps us to deal, whether practically or intellectually, with either the reality or its belongings, that doesn't entangle our progress in frustrations, that fits, in fact, and adapts our life to the reality's whole setting, will agree sufficiently to meet the requirement.[29]

It is important that this not be misunderstood as a vulgar pragmatism, concerned only with the question, "Will it work?" Of course it will--we know from experience that almost any form of social organization and any style of individual behavior will have its adherents, even its advocates. Rather, in the spirit of Arendt's view that "the trouble with modern theories of behaviorism is not that they are wrong but that they could become true ...",[30] the real questions are "For what purposes is this idea useful to whom?" "How does it help in our efforts to shape a 'good' society?"

Development, Culture and Political Ethics: Elements for an Enlarged Theory of Educational Administration

Human activity in organizations is manifestly complicated. Part of the difficulty that we theorists experience in dealing with it conceptually can be attributed to this inherent complexity. But, our problems as theorists can be traced also to our failure to conceptualize administration or life in organizations in a way that is useful to practical, ethical purposes.

Development and Engagement The most obvious features of organizations is that there are people in them. No metaphor from mechanics, cybernetics, economics or biology does sufficient justice to this important reality, nor does any intellectually convenient dualism: in organizations people work and play, love and hate, waste time and behave productively, pursue their self-interest and contribute to the common good, follow plans and act spontaneously. And, while organizations structure environments with rules and regulations, as must be the case, people bring with them their own knowledge which may be most important to their work--especially the social abilities to express themselves maturely and intelligently, be attentive, concentrate, volunteer, comply, engage in constructive self-directed activity, initiate work interactions, accept responsibility, carry through and complete tasks, exercise self-control, show creativity, assert their interests, show sensitivity to the needs of others,

and enjoy a sense of accomplishment about purposes achieved. The threads that are these actions and relationships are woven together in organizations in such a way as to form both widely shared meanings and a multiplicity of individual, status and group realities.

At any time in the history of an organization, these meanings and realities come to individuals as ideas which they inherit from their predecessors in the organization, as directives which they receive from their superiors, and as conditions which they constantly create for themselves. All of these--history and culture, external authority and self-direction--are part of experience and the human condition in organizations. Seen in this way, organizational life is both a re-enactment of history and culture and an original performance on the part of its current members, an inheritance and a personal accomplishment. This, of course, is a way of bringing Giddens' point about sociology into theory for educational administration: "Men produce society but they do so as historically located actors, and not under conditions of their own choosing."[31]

It is in this mixture of tension between the pre-given and the emergent, the appreciation of history and the anticipation of a future, that there occurs the development of persons and the organizations in which they work. Indeed, development (as the acquisition of more complex, valid and differentiated understandings of self and environment and of the motiviation and skill to act on the basis of those understandings)[32] will not occur without the generation and reduction of dissonance. Tension sets the stage for development, marks its trajectory and shapes its outcome.

Development does not mean the sudden emergence of some idea or thing which was previously unexpected. Whild occasionally dramatic, for the most part the processes of development are gradual, often so gradual that change is discernible only in retrospect. We reconstruct our vision and understanding of organizations (as, for example, Weber did for us all) only infrequently; much more time is spent transferring the concept to new cases or completing additional examples, the key ingredients in both cases being repetition and elaboration.

While development seems to be a natural and ongoing process when seen in retrospect, at the time it takes place it is not experienced as an inevitability. It is shaped by individuals who avoid or become engaged in the development of themselves or the organizations in which they work. The processes of avoidance in organizations are well known. They include[33] temporizing (putting possibilities off for a period of time), escape (exploiting excuses such as relativism to avoid commitment or responsibility), alienation (the abandonment of interest and involvement), and retreat(avoiding ambiguity and political action, in the spirit of Fromm's Escape from Freedom).[34]

Also well known are the processes through which we engage in the development of ourselves and our organizations. These are familiar as the "projects" described by the existentialists, the change movements described by critical theorists, and the enthusiasms portrayed by theorists of organizational development. They involve a sense of purposefulness, personal identification, power and concerted action. Central to them are what Berlew calls "value-related opportunities"[35] in organizations: opportunities to experiment, to do something which is good, to do something especially well, to do something which is unique, and so on. And they seem to require the leadership that MacGregor-Burns describes as transforming,[36] that is leadership which is democratic and which lifts followers into "their better selves". More succinctly, development requires engagement not avoidance. And engagement, in turn, requires a perception of a valued purpose and a process that is empowering of individuals and groups: these are matters of culture and political ethics.

Culture. Ideas about development and engagement reflect a fundamental cultural shift in how we have come to understand ourselves. For most of Western history we have assumed that behavior, events and regularities in the social world were products of forces beyond individual control--we assumed that we were made by history, or shaped by natural laws and invisible hands. The more recent developmental perspective asserts that as individuals we can be participants in the making of our history.

This perspective also distinguishes ours from non-occidental cultures. Other cultures have different views of human nature, learning and change, of individual agency and efficacy, and/or the relative importance of individuality and group belongingness as sources of human meaning and identification. Berger's discussion of the erosion of honor, a group concept central to most traditional societies, and the emergence of individual rights as a dominant social ideal in our urban and bureaucratic culture, is most instructive here.[37]

This bias in our culture, which is historically recent, has profound implications for how we view and act on the world. It enables us to entertain the possibility that we might reconstruct our worlds, makes us responsible for the values which we choose to pursue, and holds us accountable for the consequences of our choices. Persons who would make history must also assume its burdens and accept responsibility for failures to realize their best values.

Conventional administrative theory deals with these ideas of value and choice in a very restricted and culturally-centered way. In this theory values become goals, and choices are about targets, functions and timelines--the imagery is of a bureaucratic, strategic calculus by those in positions of power. I take issue with such views only when they are used exclusively or predominantly. I prefer to think of purposefulness in a more comprehensive sense, to include: the seemingly unaware activity associated with routine processes; the strategic

calculus of persons in positions of influence; the variety of purposes that are pursued within organizations, not just those which appear functional for them; and the overall movement of persons, organizations and society in the realization of certain values.[38]

Seen comprehensively, most aspects of life and work in organizations are ethically problematic and merit sustained analysis. One can question the purposes of organizations, the distribution of an organization's benefits, or the responsibilities of organizations to alter, rather than merely reflect, existing social and economic realities. Or examine issues about the rights and obligations of clients, employees, managers and employers. Or probe specific problems such as affirmative action, whistle-blowing, deception and the deliberate withholding of information, subversion and disobedience, the theft of intellectual and physical property, and so on. Or critically appraise the dehumanizing aspects of bureaucracy or of "group think" in social settings. Of course, these issues of culture, values and ethics can be approached in a variety of ways. I am drawn to three: the critical analysis of culture, the development of conceptual frameworks for the resolution of moral and ethical issues, and reflective studies of whether and how we are true to the values that we profess as being the best in our culture. Clearly, anything approaching a comprehensive treatment of these matters is an encyclopaedic task, far beyond the scope of any essay. What follows is a brief indication of some of the work required--studies of the culture and normative frameworks of organizations, and the values they act on, not just espouse.

When I speak of <u>culture</u> I mean the symbolic universe within which we function and which we create. In the analysis of our contemporary culture, the most important themes have to do with modernity and our sense of social progress and individual development. These affect our individual consciousness, the way we structure our organizations, and the manner in which we conduct and direct public affairs. Central to what we call modern consciousness are: rationality in the immediate, functional sense; the idea that reality is constituted of clearly separable elements; the view of life itself as an ongoing exercise in problem-solving; the notion of multiple realities which make difficult the creation of an overarching symbolic universe; a view of human affairs oriented toward "progress;" and individuality, the belief which asserts the primacy of individual human rights and freedoms.[39] Many of us share these views by virtue of when and where we live, our race, and our status. The point is that <u>we</u> hold these views, and cannot choose to not have them: they are there inevitably (and usually unexamined) as the silent background which gives shape and form to our thought and work. But many others do not share our <u>Weltanscheuung</u>. I am reminded here of the recent experience in Canada of attempting to enshrine certain aboriginal rights into the Canadian constitution. To this point, the exercise has been extremely difficult and largely fruitless. Part of the difficulty has been political--the problems of obtaining agreements among thirteen governments and numerous representatives of aboriginal peoples have been intractable. But more fundamental have been the cultural differences between aboriginal peoples and our governments. Aboriginal people simply see the world

in different ways, and would act on it differently, enshrining group rather than individual rights, emphasizing the preservation of their cultures rather than individual progress, and working from a wholistic rather than a segmented view of their lives and affairs.

Normative conceptual frameworks are also needed, both to guide the making of moral judgements in administration and the design of organizations and to appraise existing social and organizational conditions. The frameworks would be built upon a platform of such culturally-based ideas as right, wrong, duty, responsibility and desert and would be used in an evaluative and prescriptive fashion to guide action. Examples of this sort of work are infrequent in administration; Vickers,[40] Hodgkinson[41] and Toews[42] are among the few who come to mind. We need such work in educational administration because both education and administration are moral enterprises. Education is a social good, relevant to the advantages that individual and groups acquire in society. It is important to inquire into the distribution of these advantages and whether what we have accomplished contributes to the pursuit of our good society. Administration and the design of organizations are similarly moral, concerned with freedom and the allocation of authority to make decisions in organizations. I have a particular interest in distributive and discretionary justice and believe that benefits and decisions in educational organizations must not favor one party over some others without sound principles or reasons. This clearly raises the question of moral reasoning: "What is the nature of valid moral judgements and by what criteria will they be judged valid?" We come then to conceptions of justice, to our sentiment of humanity and fellow-feeling, to the making of just and unrepressive rules, and to considerations of duties, rights, motives and deserts which make particular judgements or distributions legitimate.

Finally, we require reflective studies which combine empirical investigation with moral concern in inquiries into whether we are accomplishing our most valued purposes. We need to know whether our actions are producing ethically right results--results for all of us, not just for men, members of the upper and middle classes, or white people alone. I do not intend here to explore old distinctions between science and ideology, for I think they are largely unfruitful--intellectual detachment, insofar as it is possible, is not identical with the absence of moral concern or compassion. Indeed, it is when intellectual detachment and moral engagement are taken together that each is the strongest, combining to form the "hard-nose utopianism"[43] which is essential to our future, whether as theorists or as citizens.

Political Ethics and the Just Use of Power. Throughout this essay I have touched, in passing, on the concept of power in what may seem to some readers as several disparate ways: as a central element of our subject matter in education administration; as a problem in the relationship between theorists and practitioners of educational administration; as a part of the process of development, in which the transfer of power in favor of the developing person is

an essential condition of development itself; as an issue in the design of organizations, manifest in the allocation of varying amounts of authority to different roles and positions in organizations; or as an instrument of social change by which we accomplish the best traditions of our culture.

There can be no doubt about power in educational and other organizations: it is present, often tangibly so, in the lives of people, their relationships with each other, and their collective ability to accomplish their purposes. However it is characterized or attributed--as a commodity, a reward, a condition of success, an individual characteristic or an expression of collective will and determination--it is a dominant feature of life and work in all organizations.

While political philosophers have given much attention to the problem of power in organizations and societies, theorists in educational administration have been curiously uncritical about it. Power has been defined, measured and attributed to different bases; but apart from the theorists of organizational development in education who would equalize it, power has not been dealt with as a (or the?) central problematic of organizations. I think this is because theorists take power and the right of administrators to exercise it for granted: in turn, the principal reasons for this may be that theorists identify with administrators in organizations or they may be dependent upon administrators for access to organizations in which to conduct their research.

At the present time in educational administration this uncritical identification of power with administrators is clearest in the research and professional literature on effective schools. This literature portrays instructionally-effective schools as institutions shaped by powerful and determined administrators who transform their schools through qualities such as: singleness and clarity of purpose; assertiveness; being prepared to confront norms of teacher autonomy and if necessary, to sacrifice interpersonal relationships for the sake of student achievement; and political and bureaucratic acumen, focussing on purposes which will be endorsed by their superiors and shaping their relationships to promote their interests. For a variety of reasons, this research has attracted wide academic, professional and public support. Educational administration is now marked by calls for such "strong" leadership and for the redirection or preparation programs and professional practice along these lines.

This research may have some value. Yet I think that something more, or rather better, is needed. There are two reasons for concern. One is that this research is silent about the essential moral foundation of education. The question here is not whether "effective" schools should be based only on these values, but whether these are the right, the "best" values. The second reason is that the imagery which the above view of administration and the use of power in educational organizations evokes persistently, while perhaps benevolent in its concern for student achievement, is limited and ultimately despotic. The

biases that it reflects are fundamentally anti-democratic. It is unflattering to teachers and students, depicting them as persons of low status, limited talent and uncertain commitment, unwilling to pursue academic achievement without determined leadership. It overlooks the reality that self-directing, self-acting and self-respecting persons at all levels are the foundation of democratic organizations and social systems.

To view the relationship between administration and the use of power critically is to raise the problems of freedom and justice in organizations. What are, and should be, the limits on extending freedom to all persons in organizations? By what authority and with what power do we bring certain ideas or practices into effect in organizations and exclude others?

In these matters I find the liberal-developmental view most convincing; it underlies the various comments about power that I have made elsewhere in this essay. In outline, that view suggests that individual freedom should be extended as far as possible, with each individual's claim to freedom being regarded as equal to that of every other individual. Freedom is not merely the chance to act on impulse or the opportunity to choose among given alternatives. It is, "... first of all, the chance to formulate the available choices, to argue over them--and then the opportunity to choose."[44] For this reason, freedom cannot exist without an enlarged role for rational persuasion in organizational affairs. Freedom is also the power to bring these choices into effect. It cannot become a reality without a democratic conception of organizational authority and leadership. All of this means that the actions of authorities ought to be unrepressive, the power of authorities should be restricted and balanced, and the processes through which authority is exercised ought to be grounded in rational persuasion rather than on dominance, whether of tradition, personality or position.

Such a view of the "just organization" is not commonplace in contemporary theoretical work in educational administration. Paradoxically though, the issues which this view raises are part of our everyday lives and practice in educational organizations. For instance, I work in a university in which the faculty are members of an organized labor union. Collective negotiations frequently center on matters related to "management rights," whatever these may be. Individual grievances often have as their substance the principles of natural justice--for example, whether administrators provide employees with the right to be heard or with opportunities to appeal when making decisions about them. Clearly, more work along these and other lines seems to be required if we are to take seriously the problems of freedom and power in organizations. Needless to say, I would encourage others to speculate on these issues.

A Concluding Note

In some ways, I suppose, this essay has grown too long, has been too wide-ranging, and has strayed too far away from its starting point in an hypothetical conversation between an academic from a developed country and a civil servant from a developing country. An yet, as I reread the paper, I think it makes for this seminar the three points that I set out to express.

Educational administration is an area of study in the process of change and development. Changes are much needed, for they may enable us to acquire more complex and differentiated views of educational organizations and of our relationships as theorists to them. I believe (hope might be a more appropriate owrd) that the long-term result will be theory of a very different sort than is now dominant in the field, theory which combines intellectual craftsmanship with moral engagement.

Because our area of study is in the process of change and development, it is best not to see it as a product, readily transferred to other settings. It is not that. And, if I am correct about the cultural bases of our work, it will neve be in any literal sense.

For these reasons, we theorists in the developed world can be of most help to those in the developing world by being ourselves and by actively engaging in our own development. Among other things, this will mean being more imaginative and more determined in our own search for alternative ways of knowing, valuing and doing educational administration.

NOTES

[1]I am indebted to Thomas B. Greenfield, Benjamin R. Levin, Robin Farquhar and John Stapleton for their helpful comments on an earlier draft of this paper.

[2]Arnold Toynbee, quoted in John Gardner, Self-Renewal (New York: Harper and Row, 1963).

[3]This view of development was articulated by Urie Bronfenbrenner, The Ecology of Human Development (Cambridge: Harvard University Press, 1979).

[4]I take the emphasis on relativism and commitment in development from William G. Perry, "Cognitive and Ethical Growth: the Making of Meaning."

[5]Harold Lasswell, "A Psychologist Looks at Morals and Politics," Ethics (April 1941).

[6]The influence of Feigl and the positivists of the Vienna Circle on the early theory movement in educational administration is not to be underestimated. For a glimpse of this, see Daniel Griffiths, "The Nature and Meaning of Theory," in Griffiths (ed.), The Behavioral Sciences and Educational Administration Chicago: The University of Chicago Press for the National Society for the Study of Education, 1964).

[7]C. Wright Mills, The Sociological Imagination (London: Oxford University Press, 1959).

[8]See especially Gouldner's The Coming Crisis of Western Sociology (New York: Basic Books, 1970). Although written in 1970, this book is an extension and a consolidation of many of the points Gouldner had made earlier.

[9]T. Barr Greenfield, "Theory about Organization: A New Perspective and Its Implications for Schools," in M. Hughes (ed.), Administering Education: International Challenge (London: Athlone Press, 1975). The paper was presented at the 1974 International Intervisitation Program.

[10]A.W. Halpin, "Administrative Theory: The Fumbled Torch," in A.M. Kroll (ed.), Issues in American Education (New York: Oxford University Press, 1970).

[11]L. Iannacone, "Interdisciplinary Theory-Guided Research: A Smoggy View from the Valley," Teachers College Record, 75 (September 1973).

[12]D.A. Erickson, "An Overdue Paradigm Shift in Educational Administration, or, How Can We Get that Idiot Off the Freeway," in L.V. Cunningham and others (eds.) Educational Administration: The Developing Decades (Berkeley: McCutchan, 1977).

[13]See, for example, my "The Theory Problem in Educational Administration," The Journal of Educational Administration, 16 (October, 1978).

[14]All of Berger's work is worth careful study. In the context of development see especially Pyramids of Sacrifice (New York: Basic Books, 1974), and The Homeless Mind (New York: Vintage Books, 1973).

[15]Ralph P. Hummel, The Bureaucratic Experience (New York: St. Martin's Press, 1977).

[16]Ibid.

[17]Perry, op.cit.

[18]A collection of Dewey's work which is useful for educators is Reginald D. Archambault (ed.), John Dewey on Education (Chicago: The University of Chicago Press, 1974).

[19]Mills, op. cit.

[20]Gunnar Myrdal, Objectivity in Social Research (New York: Pantheon Books, 1969).

[21]Weber is too infrequently remembered as a penetrating critic of bureaucracy. See Max Weber, "Bureaucracy," in G. Roth and C. Wittich (eds.), Economy and Society: An Outline of Interpretive Sociology (New York: Bedminster Press, 1969).

[22]Berger, op. cit.

[23]C.I. Lewis, An Analysis of Knowledge and Evaluation (Lasalle, Illinois: Open Court Publishing, 1946).

[24]Bronfenbrenner, op. cit., goes further, arguing that an interest in development requires a deliberate transfer of power on behalf of the developing person.

[25]All of us have our own preferences in Piaget's work. I most like his The Construction of Reality in the Child (New York: Basic Books, 1954).

[26]Joseph Tussman, quoted in Abraham Kaplan, The Conduct of Inquiry (Scranton, Pennsylvania: Chandler, 1964).

[27]Alfred Schutz, The Phenomenology of the Social World (Chicago: Northwestern University Press, 1967).

[28]Gregory Bateson, Mind and Nature (New York: Bantam Books, 1980).

[29]William James, quoted in C. Curtis and F. Greenslet (eds.), The Practical Cogitator (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1962).

[30]Hannah Arendt, The Human Condition (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1958).

[31]Anthony Giddens, New Rules of Sociological Method (New York: Basic Books, 1976).

[32]Bronfenbrenner, op. cit.

[33]Perry, op. cit.

[34]Erich Fromm, Escape from Freedom (New York: Avon Books, 1971).

[35]David Berlew, "Leadership and Organizational Excitement," in Barry Staw (ed.), Psychological Foundations of Organizational Behavior (Santa Monica: Goodyear, 1977).

[36]James MacGregor-Burns, Leadership (New York: Harper and Row, 1978).

[37]Berger, The Homeless Mind, op. cit.

[38]Gibson Winter, Elements for a Social Ethic (New York: Macmillan, 1966).

[39]Berger, ibid.

[40]See, for example, his Making Institutions Work (London: Associated Business Programmes, 1973).

[41]C. Hodgkinson, Towards a Philosophy of Administration (London: Blackwell, 1978).

[42]Otto B. Toews, Discretion and Justice in Educational Administration: Towards a Normative Conceptual Framework, unpublished Ph.D. thesis (University of Manitoba, 1981).

[43]Berger, Pyramids of Sacrifice, op. cit.

[44]Mills, op. cit.

THE CASE METHOD: AN APPROACH TO TEACHING AND LEARNING IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

by

Gwendoline Williams
Department of Management Studies
University of the West Indies
St. Augustine

Introduction

One of the critical issues in the professional preparation and development of educational administrators is that of devising instructional strategies and techniques for integrating theory and research as the basis of informing situationally relevant practice in the area of educational administration.

This paper examines the viability of the case method as a teaching/learning strategy in instructional systems geared toward the training of personnel who administer the various areas of the education system. The core argument in this presentation is that the case method provides the curriculum developer and/or trainer with a real opportunity to help the learner to become self-directed during the instructional process. More importantly, the curriculum goal of educational praxis, that is, "theory into practice" can be easily realized through the use of this method. The following limerick highlights these essential purposes of the case study.

A student of administration with tact
Absorbed many answers he lacked
But acquiring a job,
He said with a sob,
"How does one fit answer to fact."

(adapted from Gragg 1954, p. 11)

Defining the Case Method

The case method can be operationally defined as a particular type of teaching strategy which usually gives rise to a variety of participatory learning activities during the instructional process. An essential element of this methodological approach to teaching and learning is the use of a case. Lawrence (1953, p. 215) defines a case as a vehicle by which an empirically derived record of some aspect of organizational reality is brought into the classroom or training laboratory. This reality is usually an account of an actual administrative situation which is problematic in nature and therefore requires for its resolution the application of the skills of managerial/administrative decision-making. When using this method, both instructors and learners need to accept the joint responsibility for providing an indepth analysis and explanation of the major issues imbedded in the case. Following upon this, the key task is to make situationally relevant decisions on the course of action to be taken with a view of problem solving.

Characteristic Features of a Case

As a description of some organizational happening, a case may have two major types of information. These consist of data on the core and related problems, as well as contextual information. The latter includes:

a. pertinent aspects of the history of the organization;

b. intra- and extra-organizational forces affecting the organization;

c. current operational data;

d. biographical data on the key actors in the situation over time;

e. structural features of the organization including insights on the design and control systems; and

f. any other type of information which would clearly throw light on the problematic situation under review.

The core and/or related problems focus specifically on some structural or behavioural problem which the administrator is expected to resolve. It is usually pertinent to the ongoing tasks of integrating the managerial functions which include planning, organizing, staffing, budgeting, coordination and control. These processes are geared toward effective task/performance management while at the same time satisfying the needs of organizational members; and these efforts at goal attainment often happen in situations of contingencies. The issues for case analysis in the area of organizational behaviour centre, therefore, on concerns related to organizational goal setting and design; leadership; interpersonal/group conflict; motivation and organizational development and change.

There are several other salient features of the case. For example, it must be a reliably documented account of a real situation that occurred within the organizational setting. Doriswami and Towl (1963, p. 293) in emphasising the need for empiricism as a feature of authentic case writing noted that:

> **It is useful to think of a case as a connecting link which draws together the experience of the executive (administrator) on the job, the executives (and potential executives) in management development programmes, and the researcher in his (or her) efforts to understand the process of management. The written cases are catalysts to speed the process of learning from experience.**

This striving for authenticity in case writing can facilitate the process by which curriculum developers and course instructors in the various pre- and in-service training programmes in educational administration are able to pursue

the desired path of teaching and learning, using the pedagogical approach of reflection, relevant theorizing and appropriate action. The report on administrative practice as conveyed through the various cases can be evaluated in a clinical way through the use of "disciplined knowledge" from the field of academia. The use of "**non-disciplined** knowledge" or practical experience gained from day-to-day organizational life is also very desirable. The notion of "educational praxis" is central to the case method.

Another characteristic feature of the case is the systematic efforts at withholding (whenever necessary) the identity of both the organization under review as well as the key actors in the situation. The use of disguise by the case writer is intended to increase the level of confidentiality in reporting on the part of the respondent. As a consequence, the objectivity and therefore reliability of the finding may be better ensured. (Erskine, Leenders, Mauffette-Leenders 1981, pp 10-26).

Why Use the Case Method: A Historical Review

Traditionally, the case method has been popularly used in the preparation of professionals in the field of law and medicine. From the start of this century, it was introduced into the pre-service business management university programmes in the United States of America. For example, Leenders et al (1981, p. 13) recall that the Harvard Business School soon became well known for its innovative role in this effort at curriculum renewal, particularly in the area of teaching methodology.

In 1910, the Dean of Harvard Business School advised faculty members to encourage student discussion on the experiences of practicing business executives and administrators who had been invited into the undergraduate and postgraudate classrooms. By the 1920s, most faculty members had come to accept that the case method could be incorporated as a valuable teaching tool, supplementing the lecture method. At the same time there were members who felt that the case method should in fact take the place of systematic lecturing. Schoen and Sprague (1954, p. 76) escalated the debate on the utility of both methods. Their preference for the case method was obvious:

> **Instead of textbooks, the case method uses descriptions of specific business situations. Instead of giving lectures, the teacher under the case method leads a discussion of these business situations.**

In 1979, several decades since the incorporation of the method in the Business Administration Programmes at Harvard, its use is still keenly supported. For example, in the article Harvard Business School Restudies Itself written by Kiechel (1979), a highly esteemed professor reiterated the view that theory and research data must not merely be elucidated; they must be received. Students must be nurtured to develop a need and desire to use academically derived knowledge for understanding explaining and predicting human behaviour in large scale complex organizational environments.

The Use of the Case Method in Educational Administration Programmes: Any Curricular Justification?

Any discussion on the validity of the case method as an instructional tool ought to take into consideration those curricular issues which pertain to the following:

a. the target group receiving instruction;
b. the curriculum philosophy;
c. curriculum content and programme design;
d. instructional aims and objectives;
e. resource preferences and availability;
f. the instructional methodology; and
g. the mode of evaluation and appraisal.

Whether or not the use of the case method can be justified would depend on the resolution of issues pertaining to (a) to (g). This in turn depends on the perspective on education, training and curriculum development adopted by the given educational institution, and its specific departments of academic learning and/or professional preparation.

Schwab (1973, pp 501-522 advanced the view that the choice of curriculum practices in any educational programme is usually influenced by the following factors:

a. the characteristics of the wider societal environment and specific educational milieu;
b. the nature of the discipline;
c. the characteristics of the learners; and
d. the value orientations of the teaching personnel.

In respect of (a) to (d) two central issues are often raised when trying to justify the use of the case method as an appropriate instructional device. What is the nature and purpose of educational administration and who benefits from educational administration programmes within a particular educational environment?

Hoy and Miskel (1982, p. 27) have noted that a basic problem in educational administration is that it is a relatively new field of academic endeavour and professional preparation. In fact, it is only in the twentieth-century that it has received the status of a separate discipline and a systematic field of study. It is in effect, an applied discipline dependent for its perspectives, concepts and theory on the other social sciences such as sociology, psychology, economics and political science. In supporting the view that educational administration is best viewed in professional terms as an applied discipline Hills (1978, p. 2) notes:

> **In the sharpest possible contrast to the purely academic professions, the paramount feature of applied professions is the primacy of their orientation to a clinical focus. In addition to acting as custodians of specialized bodies of knowledge, the applied professions also act as trustees of categories of practical interests, and needs of society and its members (for example, maintenance of health, the settlement of legal disputes, the effective organization of educational process).**

The practical problems listed above have emerged in the field of medicine, law and now education. The case as an authentic account of a significant organizational event can effectively highlight the problematic issues; and the "disciplined knowledge" from the social sciences can then be used to provide meaningful understanding and explanations. Note that the explanatory power of practical experience should not be down-played.

While there has evolved a fairly widespread consensus on the nature of educational administration as an applied discipline, there are academicians in the field who warn against an over-emphasis on the practical at the expense of much needed theory building and academic research as valid pursuits per se. Hills (1978, p. 3) again seeks to allay this fear when he stresses that academic pursuits are in themselves legitimate, yet given the nature of educational administration as an applied discipline, the instrumental use of academic knowledge takes pre-eminenence:

> **While no less concerned with the maintenance, transmission and extension of knowledge than are the academic professions, the applied professions also assume responsibility for managing on-going practical processes and for seeking and implementing solutions to concrete, practical problems. Their ultimate focus is not the pursuit of knowledge itself, but the effective attainment of practical goals where serious interests of clients are often at stake.**

It has become evident that, how curriculum developers and instructional leaders within the university setting or agency-based training institutions organize programmes of learning in educational administration is largely influenced by their dominant conception of the nature of the discipline. A related concern is the role of the university in the society, and this institution is a major arena for the training of top educational administrators. Lower level administrators, for example, school principals, generally receive on-going training at in-house agency training venues.

In the face of modernization, and the competing constituencies of interest, the modern university has been evolving into a "multiversity." It must equally serve the interests of:

1. the academics who are an integral part of the system;
2. the students for whose schooling and education it is responsible;
3. the businessmen and government agencies who employ the graduates;
4. the politicians who gauge public sentiment about educational issues and proceed to fund as well as develop policies; and
5. the general public who ultimately foot the bill through the payment of taxes.

(Williams, 1981 p. 284)

The goals of the "multiversity" are identified in terms of two pervading concepts of the modern university. Wallerstein (1969) and Harvey and Lennard (1973) refer to the idea of the "idea" as opposed to the "ideal" of the university. The "idea" of the university points to its "popular" functions. These are geared towards public accountability in terms of the provision of useful knowledge and service to the rest of the society for purpose of nation building. University education in this context is seen as a socio-economic investment. It benefits the society in so far as it is a source of ideas for macro-economic and political policy-making and implementation.

Additionally, it is perceived as a centre of human resource development. In respect of its consumptive function, graduates use university credentials to improve their life chances and gain upward social mobility. The university in this respect is usually considered to perform a technical efficiency and consumption function as a "service station."

The multiversity, in performing its "popular" functions, is still expected to retain as its "ideal" the ivory tower activities of teaching and research. The ultimate objective here is the generation and transmission of knowledge, abilities and values which characterise civilization.

A major challenge that faces the curriculum programme developer and instructional leaders is that of designing programmes and methodologies which simultaneously meet the dominant needs of the various constituencies of interest. In sum, these needs are:

a. individual and collective intellectual development;
b. a better understanding of man and his relation to the universe;
c. improvement of society via institution building; and
d. personal and group enhancement.

The monumental task, therefore, is that of creating and maintaining a humanistic and effectively functioning industrial society, while at the same time advancing the intellectual/academic understanding of human society.

It is in response to this "multiversity" orientation that Eisner and Vallance (1974) pointed to the varying and often conflicting conception of the curriculum at all levels of the education system. To the traditionalists, university programmes and teaching methodologies must observe the ends of academic rationalism and information processing for purposes of knowledge generation and transmission.

To the "practitioner oriented," university academics programmes of learning must be socially relevant and geared ultimately toward the social reconstruction of the society. Additionally, they must provide the experiences for the self-actualization of students in so far as personality systems are formed on the basis of humanistic values. Harvey (1979, p. 5) noted that other curriculum theorists have substantiated the view that programme developers are indeed faced with conflictual views of what educational institutions should be doing. (See Appendix I).

The "practitioner oriented" approach to developing teaching methodologies in educational administration is consistent with the nature of the discipline as an applied profession. Consequently, in view of the nature of the discipline and the predominant environmental demands on trained educational administrators to demonstrate effective problem posing and problem-solving skills/competencies, the case as a study, with its related teaching and learning activities, can be used as a viable instrument of instruction. This has led to an ever-increasing questioning of the utility of the traditional lecture method in teaching the applied professions.

The Case Method and the Student of Educational Administration

In principle, the case method is essentially a participatory mode of teaching and learning. Its usefulness has been legitimated so far by consideration related to:

a. the nature of educational administration as a discipline;
b. the predominant demands of the society for educational change; and
c. the curriculum philosophy of course instructors particularly within the university setting.

This methodology can be further defended on the ground that it is an enlightened approach to instruction, given the characteristics of the students as adult learners. It is important to note that training in educational administration is essentially a process of adult education. In this regard, the characteristics of the learners must be duly considered.

Overstreet (1949, p. 43) identified some of the attributes of the successful adult learner. These include autonomy; rationalism; objectivity; deep concerns; tolerance for ambiguity; originality; a problem-solving orientation and integrated self-identity. Knowles (1977, p. 24) urges that in the face of these attributes of the learner, the mission of the adult educator (and the instructional leader in educational administration is certainly one) is to

provide the learning environment in which the students can realize their intellectual and academic potentials. The graduate can then be in a position to respond meaningfully to the imperatives of educational change within the educational system. The rest of this presentation will focus on the mechanics of the case method as a useful methodology for realising the societal, institutional and personal goals in educational administration. How this approach can be employed at the university as a setting for formal education may be compared with its use in agency based training institutions as venues for non-formal continuing education.

Teaching With the Case Method: Some Practical Concerns

a. Curriculum Intent

Notwithstanding the fact that the case method embraces a varied set of pedagogic practices, the case remains the central teaching tool in this methodology. Frantzve (1983, p. 4) is supportive of the view advanced in this presentation that cases used in pre-service university courses allow students to experience vicariously a variety of managerial/administrative situations before the actual plunge in to the "trenches" of routine organizational life. In the in-service programmes run by agency based training institutions, the use of cases may allow for reflexive thinking on existing practice. The analysis of situations reported in cases provides the learner with the opportunity to engage in:

a. decision-making under time pressure;
b. an assessment of fragmented information with the ultimate obligation to react responsibly in the problematic situation under review;
c. risk taking;
d. uncertainty; and
e. decision-making for remedial action after some performance appraisal.

The use of cases allows the student to apply concepts, theories and techniques to resolve different types of organizational problems which have actually occurred.

In contrast, there is a relative degree of passivity which characterises the relationship between teacher and learner when the traditional lecture method is used. The range of intellectual processing from knowledge and understanding to analysis, synthesis and evaluation is usually left up to the learner at the tertiary level of education.

The opportunity for the instructor to intervene directly and consistently in monitoring how students gain these intellectual/academic skills becomes somewhat limited. Essentially this activity remains the responsibility of the learner. Additionally, the moment is delayed when the learner engages in reflexive behaviour, that is, matching reflection to theory as the basis of informed practice. This has often led to the complaint that graduates in administration programmes are "too theoretical," and are generally unable to move with certainty toward the resolution of organizational problems both at the levels of policy formulation and on-going implementation.

Dooley and Skinner (1977, pp. 277-289) and Frantzve (1983, p. 5.) advance the view that the case as a teaching tool helps the student to learn on several levels.

a. Individual analysis through case analysis reports will force the application of theories and techniques of problem-solving.
b. Class discussions help the student to hear and respond to other points of view.
c. A presentation and defence of one's own analysis assist in developing an indepth probing of the case. Hence, synthesis and evaluative skills are required.

The distinguishing characteristic of this participatory approach to teaching and learning is the extent to which the analytical sifting of pros and cons and arriving at a definite decision (however incomplete the information provided) is taken by the student (McNair 1954, p. viii). One of the central objectives of this type of classroom methodology is to help students to value the importance of the transfer of learning from the academic setting to the arena of the task and wide organizational environment.

b. Components of a Case: A Focus on the Substantive Content

There are two major dimensions of a case; they are the literary layout as well as the substantive content of the situation under review. The latter is organized around:

1. the core and/or related problems which may be essentially structural or behavioural in nature; and
2. the contextual/background information in which the problems are embedded.

The substantive content of the case is determined by the educational aims and specific group of learners. For example, University based programmes in educational administration usually cater for the development of middle range and strategic managers at all levels of the formal education sytem. Graduates from these programmes are expected to assume managerial and administrative positions. In view of this, the typical kinds of issues to be dealt with in the various courses become the core content of the respective teaching plans. Fayol (1939) identified some of the issues as the following:

TABLE I.

Fayol's Concept of the Essential Activities in an Enterprise

TO MANAGE

1	2	3	4	5
TECHNICAL ACTIVITIES	COMMERCIAL ACTIVITIES	FINANCIAL ACTIVITIES	SECURITY ACTIVITIES	MANAGEMENT ACTIVITIES
				To Plan To Organize To Command To Coordinate To Control

Source: From Martin I. Gannon, Management: An Integrated Framework (2nd ed. (1982, p.19)

The two major tasks of managing the organization are the enterprise activities--technical, financial, accounting, commercial and security; and the managerial which focusses the securing of material resources; the creation of an organizational design and the acquiring and utilization of a human resource capability. These are for realizing the enterprise objectives, while at the same time meeting the human needs of people who directly or indirectly form part of the organization.

Case analyses of organizational behaviour at the various administrative levels of the education system would centre, therefore, on the typical managerial decisions to be covered in a management theory course. These are contexted by the particular conceptual framework (classical, neo-classical, systems perspectives) and the related research data to which the instructor is partial. Some of the likely questions raised are:

i. What is the organizational mission given the functions of education in the society, or for the given clientele?
ii. What is the role set adopted by the strategic, co-ordinative and operative managers?
iii. What is the dominant management philosophy?
iv. What are the formalized and emergent lines of authority, communication patterns and the bases of power?
v. What are the leadership style and decision-making patterns?
vi. What is the rationale for job descriptions and job specification of workers?
vii. What is the strategic policy on motivation, organizational control and accountability?
viii. How are resources acquired and utilized?
ix. How does the organization interface with its various publics?
x. What are the policy responses to organizational contingencies? and,
xi. What are the strategic and operative measures for facilitating organizational development and change?

Cases are developed around the issues raised in (i) and (x) and the terminal objectives for the course in management theory include the need to:

1. identify and explain the main management tasks faced by the leadership of large and small scale educational institutions.

2. determine the contribution of theory and research in the area of organizational behaviour to the resolution of given management problems.

3. adopt the position of decision-maker and/or problem solver in a variety of situations involving management problems.

(See Appendix II for the key management theory [Organizational Behaviour] issues)

ii. Literary Layout: The Case Plan

Leenders and Erskine (1978, p. 42) in alluding to the problems of layout of the case raised the following questions: What information should a case contain? How much information should be included? What should be excluded? and Where should the case end? Perhaps a generalized response to these questions is that it depends on the theoretical focus and the practical purpose of the case as a teaching tool. For example, there is need to effect a meaningful balance between the core and contextual information in the case. A major criterion for so doing is the decision-making responsibility that the student is expected to assume: decision-making under time pressure in a situation of fragmented information; risk taking and uncertainty or remedial action after the problematic event. In addition, there is need to consider the theoretical issues to be raised.

In respect of the pertinent concepts, theory and data to be used in the case analysis, Leenders and Erskine (1978, pp. 127-130) refer to the efforts of Professor Frank Folls from the Harvard School to resolve the academic issue of the kind of analytical task(s) that the student is expected to undertake when doing a case analysis. The emergent issue here as seen by these researchers is the level of conceptual difficulty that characterises the case. Three dimensions of difficulty have been identified. There are:

a. the analytical dimension--this involves either evaluating the match between the problem and the given solution, requesting a viable solution to a given problem of asking the student to identify both the problem and solution to a described situation;

b. the conceptual dimension--this requires the student to discern the complexity of concepts and/or theories which can illuminate and explain the analytical issues in the case; and

c. the presentation dimension--this is the contextual realm of (a) and (b) in so far as the case writer makes a decision on the type and scope of background information in which the case problems are embedded. This includes organizational history, personal biographies, environmental forces and current operational data.

In respect of (a) a case outline is structured to include opening paragraphs which usually have either a direct or oblique reference to the conceptual/analytical problem or issue. Some effort is also made to highlight information related to the identity of the decision-maker and the frame of the case. Is it, for example, written at the time when the problem has not yet been identified; at the stage of critical investigation; the decision/implementation phase; the evaluation phase or at a time when the problem has already been resolved? (University of Western Ontario Case Writing Workshop, April 1985). Additionally, the environmental context in which the case event is taking place must be described. The flash back technique may be used to present this type of data.

The body of the case is usually an elaboration of the data provided in the opening paragraphs. Depending on the nature of the analytical task and the degree of conceptual difficulties, enough information must be provided to allow for a meaningful decision to be made. It is to be noted that three criteria for determining how adequate the data are:

a. the type of decision to be made and the circumstances thereto;

b. the time frame involved; and

c. the pertinence of the facts and figures, biographical data, opinions, and the environmental profiles.

C. Case Analysis: Some Instructional Hints

During the conduct of a case analysis, instructors can improve their competence as classroom facilitators if the basic operational principles of case writing are known. For example, awareness of the case dimensions, the rationale for gathering information in the field, and the criteria for determining information adequacy can help tremendously in the actual analysis and decision-making phase. In this presentation hints on how to teach through case work is done through the use of a prepared case. (See Appendix 111).

i. Case Example

Analytically, the case requires the students to explain why the leadership/supervisory style of John Duff is ineffective. Additionally, they are to outline possible ways in which the interpersonal conflict in the Department can be meaningfully resolved. A major emphasis would be on Duff's role in the problem-solving process. Decision-making in this case would be done in a situation where corrective action is needed after a period of ineffectual problem-solving.

The level of conceptual difficulty in the case is relatively low. For example, the core theoretical issue deals simply with styles of supervision. The interrelated concepts include organizational development and change; personality systems--abilities and motives; conflict in organizations and communication. The table below ranks the theoretical concepts which will help to throw light on the core problem identified. The use of such a matrix can help the instructor to remain focussed on the predetermined key issues in the case. Nonetheless, student inputs may and should change both the listing and rank order of concepts if this becomes desirable. The point is, however, that the instructor must have a teaching plan in order to facilitate a productive case analysis session.

TABLE 2

The Different Supervisor - Theoretical Concepts

	1. Organizational Goals	2. Management Philosophy	3. Learning & Memory	4. Personality	5. Motivation	6. Perception	7. Attitudes	8. Performance	9. Stress	10. Communication	11. Decision Making	12. Coordination & Conflict	13. Influence & Power	14. Leadership/Supervision	15. Structure & QWL	16. Organizational Development
1					x									x		
2							x					x				x
3				x												
4						x										
5.																
6									x	x						
7																
8																
9																

Source: Adapted from Robert A. Baron, Behaviour in Organizations: Understanding and Managing the Human Side of Work. Boston: Allyn and Bacon 1983.

ii. The Teaching Notes

The teaching notes which follow the synopsis of the case are intended to serve as a guide for the instructor in order to:

a. ensure clarification of the problematic issues in the case, either in terms of the problem posing questions to be asked, and/or the solution to be given to the presented problem;

b. decide on the conditions under which decision-making for problem resolution should take place; and

c. determine the relevant concepts, theories and research data applicable to the case.

Immediate Issues

1. How prepared was John Duff when he assumed the administrative position as Co-ordinator of the Public Relations Unit?

2. In what specific ways did he contribute to the breakdown in inter-personal relations between his two Administrative Assistants?

3. Why was he disturbed over the possible outcome of his ultimatum to the two officers?

Theoretical Focus

Career path analysis must take account of the "task related maturities" that specialists in the technical stream must develop when promoted to generalist administrative positions in largescale organizations.

Basic Issue

In respect of human resource management and development, what factors should be taken into consideration when assigning senior professionals, who are technical experts, to key managerial and administrative positions?

Teaching Objectives and Possible Use of the Case

This case is intended to have students examine the different types of leadership and supervisory styles in service-type organizations. More specifically, the focus will be on the issues related to task related maturity (TRM). For example, how prepared are senior professionals in training institutions, who may have spent a life time working in teaching and research, to assume managerial and administrative responsibilities in such organizations?

The case can be used to highlight the need for changes in professional requirements when career paths are changed intra-organizationally.

Suggested Student Assignment (after Case Analysis)

Provide a detailed report on the success of a preliminary counselling session which Mr. Duff had requested with the Director of Employee Relations in the aftermath of the "debacle" in his newly established unit.

Reference Readings

Hoy, Wayne, K. and Miskel, Cecil G. Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice. N.Y.: Random House, 1982. (Read the Section on Leadership Models from Training Programmes, pp. 250-259)

Lipham, James, "Leadership and Administration" in Behavioural Science and Educational Administration edited by Daniel E. Griffiths. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1964. p. 122.

Brown, Alan F. "Reactions to Leadership". Educational Administration Quarterly 3 (1967). pp. 62-73.

Possible Questions for Class Discussion

The Coordinator as Administrator

* How long has the Unit Head been associated with the organization and in what functional capacity?

* What were the essentials of his job descriptions/specifications?

* On the assumption of the role of Unit, how may one describe his management/administrative stature?

* Describe his personality characteristics.

* How prepared was he for the job? (TRM):

  - what were his personal expectations?

  - what were those of the organization?

  - what were those of the Administrative Assistants?

* How can his leadership/supervisory style be described? For example, what was his strategic approach to conflict management?

* What was his attitude to organizational and staff development?

* What was the supervisory response of the Unit Head to the outbreak of conflict? Why?

* To what extent did he seek help from the Employee Assistance Division? What kind of co-operation took place? Was it successful?

* Why did the conflict come to a head?

  - predisposing factors

  - immediate factors?

* What was the co-ordinator's response?

  - implications--legal, industrial, administrative?

The Administrative Assistants

* What was the professional, academic and socio-cultural background of the two Administrative Assistants?

* What were their perceptions of the terms and conditions of employment?

* What accounted for the deteriorating interpersonal relationship?

  - personality

  - organizational

  - cultural

* What intensified the conflict?

The Organization

* What type of organization was it? And in what kind of communal/societal environment did it exist at that given historical point in time?

* What was its a) Size? b) Functional divisions? c) Goals and objectives? and d) Status (in respect of efficiency and effectiveness?

* When was the Public Relations Unit established? What purpose was it intended to serve?

  - How much strategic/co-ordinative planning was undertaken?

  - What was the policy on human resource acquisition, allocation, use and evaluation?
    (Refer to job descriptions, wage and salary, administrative grading)

* What were the Organizational/Departmental policies on:

    a. Recruitment, selection, placement and training?
    b. Employment policy in respect of wage and salary administration
    c. Job Analysis
    d. Performance appraisal.

iii. Some Hints on Organizing the Case Discussion/Analysis

There are three major considerations the instructor must bear in mind when leading a case discussion. Apart from the substantive issues which deal with resolving the core and related problems in the case, there are the procedural (methodology) and the environmental (class set) concerns to which the lecturer must attend.

With respect to actual classroom activities it is desirable to consider three possible phases. These pertain to matters of methodology and physical class set. There are the pre-class activities which include the following:

    a. ensuring that case materials are available to the students;

    b. preparing a collegial classroom set;

    c. putting in place the appropriate classroom technology--overhead projectors; chalkboards and other teaching aids; and,

    d. organizing for the proper identification of class participants.

In the classroom phase, the basic analytic process involves, initially, a set induction to the case discussion--for example, a warm-up session of some kind. The actual case analysis requires the students to become very participatory in the classroom interaction. For example, in the case under review, they are expected to:

    a. arrive at some broad consensus on the nature of the problem;

    b. identify the illuminating concepts and theories;

    c. provide relevant case data to substantiate points made;

    d. arrive at a workable number of decision criteria to be used for problem-solving;

    e. decide on the most appropriate decision alternative;

    f. provide both a justification and a plan for implementation;

    g. give details on the timing and strategies of implementation; and

    h. list and explain the intended and unintended consequences of the implementation effort.

It has become customary to precede the activities of (a) to (h) with a scheduled half to three-quarter hour long student study session. During this time, students are left to themselves to brainstorm about the case. The instructor may or may not visit the groups to get an idea of the thought processes of the students.

The actual case discussion allows for brainstorming, teacher and student probes, summary points and closure activities. Toward the end of the class session the instructor may find it necessary to highlight the key points through a mini-lecture. For example, in commenting on the negative consequences of being a diffident supervisor, the instructor may list and explain the type of competencies required for effective supervision. There are occasions when a case session could usefully be followed up by one or more scheduled lectures to elucidate the "disciplined" knowledge related to the conceptual issues and problematic concerns embedded in the case.

Classroom observation of a well executed case discussion would show a participatory mode of learning and teaching. Dooley and Skinner (1977, p. 287) highlight the educational assumptions and instructional intent of this method in the table below:

TABLE 3

CLASS DESCRIPTORS LOW/HIGH	INSTRUCTOR DESCRIPTORS LOW/HIGH	EDUCATIONAL ASSUMPTIONS
Participation/ involvement	Respect for students	(1) Responsibility for learning
Enthusiasm/mood	Patience	instructor ... class
Freedom to risk ask/fail	Face	(2) Objectives
Fun level	Voice	knowledge ... skill
Preparation level	Physical body movements	
Discussion Pace	Enthusiasm	(3) Pitch: class level
	Concern for individuals	
	Avoidance for superficiality/ analytical	
	Excellence demanded	
	Sense of rigor, importance, demands	

Source: Arch R. Dooley and Wickham Skinner. "Casing Casemethod Methods," April 1977, p. 287

In the post-teaching phase, students are usually given a specific assignment to be turned in as a case report. This report is a written account of the case analysis based on the format used in the case discussion. Students are expected to include in this organizational analysis, a judicious documentation of supportive literature on the thematic issues raised in the case. Differing explanations and recommendations are quite acceptable as long as reasoned support is provided. One of the biggest problems with many reports is the inadequate use of relevant case data as the basis of substantiation. Also, there is the tendency to accept operational data (charts, graphs and quantitative information) at face value. It is important to assess the consistency of the various types of data provided.

Teacher evaluation of case reports should take account of the student's ability to engage in problem posing; problem-solving; and, more importantly, the internal consistency of the arguments presented. This must be backed up by theory-based justification of decision choices made. The clinical use of case data is an integral part of the exercise.

CONCLUSION

Case Teaching: A Note of Caution

It has been argued in this presentation that there is a continuing demand for social relevance in developing programmes of instruction in applied disciplines such as educational administration. Consequently, educational "praxis" has become an intended learning outcome on the part of the student. The case method is suggested as a useful approach to helping the student become a self-directed learner. It allows him/her to acquire the skills of reflexive thinking in under-graduate and postgraduate programmes in educational administration. It must be noted that the "practitioner oriented" approach to such programmes should not necessarily preclude efforts at pure research and knowledge transmission per se. It is really a matter of emphasis.

It is absolutely necessary to point out, however briefly, some of the limitations of the case method. Firstly, course instructors must be extremely competent in understanding the mechanics of case writing and teaching. If not, there is usually much superficial learning taking place. For example, Argyris (1980, p. 211) highlighted the philosophical and pedagogical problems that could develop when using the case method. He pointed to the likelihood that case teaching in management development programmes may

> (1) facilitate learning that does not question the underlying values of executives or the policies of their organization and (2) inhibit the learning that would enable the executives to question these basic factors and to improve the application of new learning in the home organization.

Such learning is described as "double-looped," for while it may result in the detection and correction of errors in the operational phases of policy implementation, it does not agenda the need for changing underlying philosophical perspectives, as well as executive assumptions, policies and goals.

There can be little doubt as to the validity of Argyris's concern. Getzels (1979, p.5), in his discussion on problem-finding and research in educational administration, argued that "the function of thinking is not just solving an actual problem but discovering, envisaging, going into deeper questions." Authentic case teaching is informed by Albert Einstein's statement that

> **the formulation of a problem is often more essential than its solution, which may be merely a matter of mathematical or experimental skill. To raise new questions, from a new angle, requires creative imagination and marks read in advance in science.**
>
> **(Getzels, 1979, p.5)**

The admonition here for the case writer and teacher is the need to take up the challenge of problem definition in the case analysis so that it is undergirded by philosophical, sociological and practical meaningfulness. Does the critical incident under review, for example, point in the direction of systematic organizational development and change? Does the issue of poor supervision reflect the wider concern of valuing on the importance of administrative and human relations within the corporate culture of the organization? In sum, what is being suggested is a holistic approach to resolving the issues within the narrow confines of the critical incident.

Secondly, the often atheoretical approach to the case analysis and report is often said to be the reason for superficial teaching and learning. The principle of educational "praxis" is a must when using this method. Thirdly, case exercises can be very time consuming and require effective teaching resources. Also when compared with lectures, they seem inefficient in the area of information processing, for students must have the prerequisite skills of handling relatively large volumes of information. For example, an ever present danger is the tendency to synopsize the data in the case, without ultimately discerning the block managerial/administrative issue(s) to be resolved. Providing theoretical and empirical justifications for judgements made is yet another kind of difficulty. This can be exacerbated by the use of emotion for logic. The reduction of these kinds of problems in area of intellectual/academic processing during the case analysis and report depends in large measure on the facilitating skills and value orientations of the lecturer.

Fourthly, effective testing and appraisal of students' efforts during the case discussion and report have remained areas of concern. For example, within the university setting, instructors are questioned on the validity of awarding students marks for classroom participation. There is usually fear of too much subjectivity. The key issue here is that it is often unproductive to talk about right and wrong answers. A better guide here is to decide on whether the right questions have been asked and the solutions offered reasonably justified.

In view of the difficulties, it may be judicious to downplay the use of cases for beginners in educational administration programmes. Ensure that a body of concepts, theories and research data have first been acquired by the students. Later on, perhaps at the postgraduate stage, the method can be more defensibly employed.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Argyris, Chris, "Some Limitations of the Case Method: Experiences in a Management Development Programme". Academy of Management Review Vol. 5 No. 2, 1980 pp 291-29.

Baron, Robert A. Behaviour in Organizations: Understanding the Human Side Work, Boston: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1983.

Erskine, J. Leenders, M.R. and Mauffette Leenders L.A. Teaching With Cases, Ontario: U.W.O. Research and Publication Division, 1981.

Eisner, Eliot and Vallance, (ed). Conflicting Conceptions of the Curriculum, California: McCutchan Pub. Corporation, 1974.

Frantzve, Jerri. Behaving in Organizations, Tales from the Trenches, Mass.: Allyn and Bacon, Inc., 1983.

Fayol, Henri. Industrial and General Administration, Pitman Publications, 1939.

Gragg, Charles I. "Because Wisdom Can't Be Told" in The Case Method at Harvard Business School edited by Malcolm O. McNair, N.Y.: McGraw-Hill, 1954.

Getzels, Jacob W. "Problem-Finding and Research in Educational Administration" in Problem-finding in Educational Administration edited by Glen L. Immegart and William Boyd, Mass.: Lexington Books, 1979.

Harvey, Edward and Lennard Jobs L. "Key Issues in Higher Education" Research in Education Series No. 3, Toronto: OISE Publications, 1973.

Harvey, Claudia. "Conceptions of Curriculum and Their Application to Teacher Education Programmes". Unpublished M.A. Thesis OISE, 1979.

Hills, Jean. "Problems in the Production and Utilization of Knowledge in Educational Administration" Educational Administration Quarterly Vol. 14, No. 1, (Winter 1978) pp 1-17.

Hoy, Wayne K. and Misket, Cecil G. Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice, N.Y.: Random House, 1982.

Knowles, Malcolm S. The Modern Practice of Adult Education, Androgogy versus Pedagogy, N.Y.: Association Press, 1977, (ed).

Leenders, Michael R. and Erskine, James A. Case Research: The Case Writing Process, Ontario: U.W.O. Research and Publication Division, 1978.

Lawrence, Paul R. "The Preparation of Case Material" in The Case Method of Teaching Human Relations and Administration, edited by K.P. Andrews. Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard University Press, 1954.

Overstreet, Harry A. The Mature Mind, N.Y.: W.W. Norton, 1949.

Rashid, Anwar and Archer, Maurice. Organizational Behaviour, Toronto: Methuen Publications, 1983.

Wallerstein, Immanuel, University in Turmoil: The Politics of Change, N.Y.: Antheneum, 1969.

Williams, Gwendoline. "Constraints on Establishing Credibility in Higher Education: The Case of the University in Developing Countries," Caribbean Journal of Education Vol. 8. No. 3, September 1981.

A P P E N D I C E S

Appendix 1.

Locating Varying Conceptions of Curriculum in Tyler's Sources and in Academic Disciplines

Tyler (1949)	Joyce and Weil (1972)	Eisner and Vallance (1974)	McNeil (1977)	Academic Discipline Source (Zais, 1976)
	1. Personal Sources	Self Actualization	Humanistic Curriculum	Third Force Psychology Existential Person-centred philosophies
The Learner	2. Behaviour Modification	Technology	Technology	Behavioural Psychology
	3.a. Information Processing	Cognitive processes		Developmental Psychology
The Subject Matter	3.b.	Academic Rationalism	Academic Subject	Other World Platonic Philosophy
Contemporary	4. Social Interaction	Social Reconstruction/ Relevance	Social Reconstructionists	Earth centred philosophies. Disciplines that deal with social organization with its effect on individuals and how they in turn affect social change--sociology, social psychology, history, economics

Source: Claudia Harvey. "Conceptions of Curriculum and Their Application to Teacher Education Programmes". Unpublished M.A. Thesis OISE, 1979 p.

Appendix 11

Key Issues in Organizational Behaviour in the Educational Setting

Alienation
Career Development
Centralization/Decentralization
Collective Bargaining
Communication
Conflict Resolution
Contingency Planning
Crisis Management
Employee Relations
Group Behaviour
Goal Setting
Interpersonal Relations
Job Satisfaction
Job Enrichment
Leadership
Management Philosophy
Management of Change
Matrix Organization
Motivation
Morale
Organizational Change
Organizational Structure
Personal Development
Reorganization/Restructuring
Supervision
Strategic Planning

Appendix 111

THE DIFFIDENT SUPERVISOR

In 1985, one year after John Duff became the Coordinator, Public Relations at a large training institution in Toronto, he sat considering the outcome of his recent decision to have his two Administrative Assistants dismissed if they did not immediately resolve their personality differences. His response was somewhat unexpected for he had previously chosen to ignore the deteriorating interpersonal relations between the two people. Now, he had acted out of embarrassment and hurt for the officers had failed to cooperate even minimally in making the Department's highly publicized community outreach project the success that was anticipated.

Duff, a genial and hardworking person, was appointed in 1984 to head the newly established public relations unit after some thirty years as an instructor/consultant in the Training Division of the organization. Much of his effort in the new position had been spent in meetings with the top administrators of the institution formulating plans for the large scale community outreach project. Additionally, he was frequently out of the office meeting clients, public officials and the leaders of voluntary associations.

The two senior Administrative Assistants assigned to the Unit were respectively responsible for general office management and community outreach. From time to time they were expected to collaborate in order to get the various Project tasks completed. They had been recommended for the positions in the light of their years of service in several of the Departments in the organization (forty years altogether) and their acknowledged capability and competence in office administration.

Initially, the Assistant responsible for office management was one salary grade below her colleague and had to report to her. After some months, as part of the Financial Controller's efforts at incorporating the Unit into the wider organizational wage structure, both positions were given equivalent status and remuneration. Also, both officers were to report directly to the Coordinator.

It soon became evident that the two officers, who had come from different cultural and ethnic backgrounds, had developed personal antagonisms for each other to the point where there was a virtual breakdown in communication. At one stage, there was a request for a screen to separate their areas of operation in the office.

As the tension increased in the office, the Coordinator would from time to time intervene diplomatically, and then only to offer a word of counsel and suggest the need for conciliation. Since the work output remained relatively high, he generally ignored the fact that the situation was becoming explosive. At one point, he confided to an Employee Relations Officer in the Personnel Department that the responsibility for working out their differences lay with the women themselves. Laughingly he said, "Let those dames sort themselves out. What am I doing in the middle of their brouhaha? I'll be damned." Privately he lamented that the Personnel people were not doing their job.

Events came to a head while the Coordinator was away on business related to the mounting of the Unit's first major Community Outreach Project. The two Assistants were expected to work together to provide the support services for the event. In attempting to do so they got into a vicious confrontation which, in the absence of the Coordinator, had to be resolved by the Director of Employee Relations himself. As a result of this altercation the objectives of the Project were only partially achieved and the Unit received a poor evaluation from the various community agencies.

In a state of intense pique, Duff issued his ultimatum. As he calmed down and awaited a response, he became increasingly worried about his general administration of the Unit, and in particular how he could get the best out of his workers.

This case was written by Gwendoline Williams during the 1985 Case Writing Workshop. Case material of the School of Business Administration is prepared as a basis for classroom discussion.
Copyright (c) 1985, School of Business Administration, The University of Western Ontario and University of the West Indies.
This workshop was supported by a Canadian Studies Program grant, Secretary of State.

****

II. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPING AREAS

THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN DEVELOPING COUNTRIES WITH EMPHASIS ON THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

Graduate Programmes in Educational Administration
The Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa

by

Jotham Ombisi Olembo
Kenyatta University College
Nairobi, Kenya

Graduate programmes in educational administration in developing countries is a wide subject. I have narrowed down the topic to the Commonwealth Caribbean and African Universities. Even in the two regions I was able to find relevant information on universities in West Indies, Guyana, Zimbabwe, Tanzania, Kenya and Nigeria. The universities referred to in my paper are relatively young and unknown internationally. To some extent, they may not even be well known within the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa. However, the fact that graduate programmes in educational administration are offered in such institutions means that the subject has received the significance it deserves. Although the subject is offered in several universities, the number of students currently enrolled at graduate levels in the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa is very small. Each of the universities discussed in the paper has less than five students registered for graduate degrees in educational administration every academic year. There are many applicants but the scholarships available limit the intake to a very insignificant number. Those academicians who spend many hours with a handful of students often wonder about the economics of mounting the programmes. What is encouraging is that the graduates of such programmes have been deployed in key positions, both in the public and private sectors, within the two regions.

Another observation expressed in the paper concerns exchange programmes for students and faculty members within the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa. I am not aware of any scheme that promotes such an exchange. However, an exchange of that kind would benefit the recipients and the regions because of the exposure leading to the discovery of the prevalent similarities and differences within the two regions. Such discoveries, I am convinced would lead to joint research projects which, in future, would benefit the world community.

In the paper there are also discussions on the courses offered and the duration of the graduate programmes in educational administration within the universities of the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa. Some universities offer master's degree programmes which take one academic year for full time students. Others require two academic years and twice that duration for part-time students. The programmes are administered in terms of coursework, examinations and thesis. Some universities simply require a master's or a doctor of philosophy thesis. A recent development among the universities in the two regions is to require candidates to do coursework, examinations and projects before they are awarded a master's degree in educational administration.

These introductory remarks, I hope, have synthetized the focus of my paper. I would, however, like to mention from the outset that significant progress has been made by universities in our two regions to develop and implement educational administration graduate programmes. My paper has dwelt largely on masters degree programmes although programmes leading to certificates, diplomas and undergraduate degrees in educational administration have also been discussed. A number of universities in the two regions have programmes leading to Doctor of Philosophy, Ph.D., and Doctor of Education, Ed.D., in educational administration, both of the degree programmes being research oriented. I am particularly critical of such degrees because some of the candidates admitted to them did not follow coursework programmes when they were studying for masters' degrees.

University Programmes in Educational Administration

The late Eric Williams, the founder and the first Prime Minister of Trinidad and Tobago, posed the following question: "Can the universities following overseas patterns, afford to think in terms of expanding graduate facilities when more and more potential undergraduates are knocking at their doors."[1] The answer is yes and no. In Africa considerable expansions have taken place in primary teachers' colleges, secondary teachers' colleges and universities' colleges of education. What inspired expansions and establishment of new primary teachers' colleges was a decision, taken by African leaders in 1960, aimed at providing universal primary education for all African children by the year 1980. As enrolments in primary schools rocketed demand for teachers increased, and the desire for training teacher trainers also increased. The best teachers' trainers happened to be graduates and therefore graduate programmes had to be mounted with financial support from the World Bank. The negative part of my response to the late William's question is exemplified, to some extent, in programmes leading to certificates or diplomas in education mounted by the various campuses of the University of West Indies and even African universities. The University of West Indies, in fact, is unique in the two regions for mounting programmes leading to certificate and diploma in Education (Administration of Schools). To be eligible for admission, a candidate must have been a successful internal student in an institution of teacher education for a minimum period of one year and have taught for three years; have had ten years of satisfactory teaching experience, although not having been an internal student in an institution of teacher education, provided she has been declared to be a qualified or certified teacher by the competent authority in his/her country. The course of study extends for one year.[2] Graduates of such programmes, in my estimation, are most suitable for administration positions related to primary education. However, senior educational administrators would require undergraduate degrees in the teaching subjects and master's degrees in educational administration and planning to handle the rapidly expanding educational system phased with numerous problems.

Another example of a programme leading to a Certificate in Educational Management and Administration is offered at Cave Hill, University of West Indies. The University of West Indies Certificate is intended primarily for experienced practitioners in the field of primary and secondary education now hold, or are likely to hold posts of special responsibility. It is designed to equip participants for effective leadership roles in the management and administration of educational institutions and organizations and in other supervisory management positions in the education system. To be eligible for admission, a candidate must be a trained teacher, that is, one who has satisfied the requirement of his/her territory for certification as such, with at least ten years approved teaching experience, or the status of a graduate of an approved university with at least five years approved experience. Candidates aspiring to the Certificate in Educational Management and Administration at Cave Hill take the following courses: Objectives and Organization of Education, Human Development and Learning, Sociology of Education, Theories of Organization and Administration; School Organization and Administration, The Government of

Education and Educational Organizations, Research Techniques and Research into Organizations and Evaluation and Assessment.[3] Some of the courses mentioned above are similar to those offered in graduate programmes in other universities. However, the graduate programmes are presumed to go into greater depth.

Graduate Programmes in Educational Administration

There are three observations I came across in the review of related literature which are relevant to a discussion on graduate programmes offered by universities in the commonwealth Caribbean and Africa. One of the articles appearing in the Statistical Reports and Studies, a Unesco publication, observed that: "In many African countries it was not until after 1965 that higher education really began to develop, or at least, to diversify."[4] Educational Administration and Management is one of the courses that was introduced much later in the universities in Africa as well as the Commonwealth Caribbean. Therefore, while discussing this paper one needs to appreciate the significant efforts that have been made within the last decade to incorporate educational administration and management into university programmes. Another observation, which needs to be borne in mind while discussing educational administration graduate programmes in the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa, was made by Ronald Dore. He said, "In the third world countries, as more and more students seek higher and higher qualifications without the existence of jobs of appropriate levels in the modern sector of the economy, qualifications become debased as the numbers of educated unemployed grow." Dore continued to say, "Kenya's educational system is even more recently established; the country did not have the high quality academic schools open to natives as Ceylon did. After independence educational expansion was given priority leading to greater growth in school output than modern sector jobs."[5] This observation, I can assure you, does not affect teacher education in general and educational administration in particular. As a matter of fact, there is a great shortage of qualified teachers and school administrators at all levels of our educational system. Qualified educational administrators, in my opinion, would assist in reducing unemployment problems among the educated by ensuring that curriculum provides appropriate skills leading to employment. The last observation that is relevant to our discussion was made by William C. Strasser Jr. He said, "Universities are uniquely suited to help higher education personnel to develop their understanding of institutional management."[6] Without over emphasizing Strasser's point, universities in the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa need to develop graduate programmes for training and in servicing educational officers. Some of our university Vice Chancellors, principals, registrars and permanent secretaries in the Ministries of Education may not be knowledgeable about educational management. When those mentioned above are considered along side their juniors, namely headteachers and education officers, the field for graduate programmes in the two regions is then wide open.

The University of Dar es Salaam is making efforts in that direction. One of the objectives of the Master of Arts (M.A.) programme in education is to train administrators, planners, and researchers for the Ministry of National Education and other educational insitutions in Tanzania and elsewhere.[7] The University of

Zimbabwe, on the other, hand has a Master of Education programme (Educational Administration) designed to meet the needs of those working in the educational system at all levels. The programme is expected to prove of particular value to teachers holding posts of responsibility, school heads, lecturers in teachers' colleges, inspectors, administrators, graduates working in formal and non-formal fields of adult education.[8] Universities of the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa need not be reminded of their mission to provide skilled and effective administrators and managers for our educational systems, in particular, and also other sectors of our national economies.

Admission Requirements for Graduate Programmes Educational Administration

Many universities in the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa seem to imitate universities in the United Kingdom, Canada, the United States, Australia and New Zealand. The admission requirements for graduate programmes, educational administration included, are at least undergraduate degrees. There are instances where admission requirements are even more stringent than those called for in developed countries. There are a few universities in the region that are breaking away from the traditional requirements. The University of Guyana would admit non-graduates into a Master of Education degree programme under special conditions.[9] On the other hand, the University of West Indies requires candidates judged by the school of education to be unsatisfactory to pass a written test before they are admitted into graduate programmes.[10] Generally, most universities in the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa require a first degree in education or a bachelor's degree (arts or science) with a diploma or certificate in education as the basic requirement for admission into graduate programmes in education. For graduate programmes in educational administration, however, teaching and/or administrative experiences are additional requirements. The University of Zimbabwe, for example, requires a minimum of three years in approved educational work, while the University of Guyana insists on two years experience. There is merit in requiring some teaching and administrative experiences before admission into graduate programmes for educational administration. Candidates need to be familiar with practical aspects of educational institutions in order to appreciate the theories aimed at improving the skills of those involved in administering them. Practicum during the preservice training is also essential even though there is no evidence of such scheme for the master's degree programme I have analyzed in the two regions.

Duration for Graduate Programmes in Educational Administration

As mentioned earlier in my introductory remarks, the duration of study for a master's degree in educational administration differs from one university to another throughout the two regions. Five examples have been sighted to illustrate this point. At the University of West Indies candidates are required to follow the prescribed course of study over a minimum period of six terms. At Ahmadu Bello University in Nigeria a master of education with specialization in educational administration and planning requires four terms for full-time

students and four long vacations for part-time. At the University of Zimbabwe, on the other hand, the master of education degree extends over a period of one year for full-time students and two years for part-time. At Kenyatta College, University of Nairobi, the master of education programmes normally take two years for full-time students and are divided into coursework and research, each lasting one academic year. Last but not least, the University of Guyana requires one and one-half years for full-time students done by coursework, examinations, laboratory performance and thesis. One wonders why there should be a difference of one year duration between the University of Zimbabwe and the University of West Indies. Using my experience at Kenyatta University College, I would speculate the difference occurs because of the emphasis placed on the research. While some universities do not require a masterpiece thesis at this level, other universities do. Therefore, the time provided for research and writing of thesis does indicate the seriousness of work expected from candidates. There have been numerous instances where candidates have taken more than two years to complete masters' degrees mainly because of the time it takes to complete theses. Even when the thesis has been completed in time, there are further delays caused by external examiners and boards of examiners. In the final analysis it takes four years on the average to graduate a candidate for master's degree.

To conclude this section, I would like to mention that the Ahmadu Bello University programme, which utilizes long vocations, is unique in the two regions. The University of Guyana comes closer to this in its post graduate diploma in education. It utilizes week-ends and long vacations to enable students who are full-time at work to complete their graduate diploma in one year. I have not been able to verify whether the master of education programme at the University of Guyana is organized along the same lines. What is important about organizing programmes that utilize long vacations is that candidates can continue working full-time. They could also bring their immediate and on going experiences to enrich the classroom discussions. Possibilities of trying some of the theories learnt during the lectures on the working environment are greater. Should the theories succeed or fail, there are possibilities for discussions in classroom situations later. However, arrangements would have to be made to ensure that university lecturers affected have vacation at some point within the academic year.

Courses Offered for Graduate Programmes in Educational Administration

For the benefit of our discussion I have listed courses offered by two universities in the region and in the appendix there are detailed course descriptions taken from two other universities.

The University of Zimbabwe offers a wide range of courses for a Master of Education (Administration).

Candidates are required to take the equivalent of ten full courses listed below:

1. Research Methodology;
2. Evolving Concept in Educational Administration;
3. Administration of Intercultural Education;
4. Administrative Processes in Education;
5. Personality Theories and Development;
6. Psychological Foundations of Curriculum Development;
7. Administration of Education in Zimbabwe;
8. Supervision of Educational Personnel;
9. The Role of the Administrator;
10. Organization of Schools;
11. Educational Planning;
12. Economics of Education;
13. Measurement and Evaluation;
14. Programme Evaluation;
15. Adaptive Processes in Educational Organization;
16. Administration and Student Personnel;
17. The Administration and Organization of Higher Education;
18. Administrative Science and Educational Administration;
19. The Politics of Education.

These are half courses except Research Methodology which is a full course.[12] What this means is that candidates must take most of the courses listed above. In addition, candidates are required to write a dissertation which counts for two full courses. One course requires special mention: "Administration and Organization of Higher Education." You will recall I had expressed concern in this area. Therefore, the inclusion of that course in the master of education administration is a step in the right direction. I would like more courses developed to cater to increasing demand for highly qualified administrators in our universities and other institutions of higher learning.

Kenyatta University College, University of Nairobi, provides another example of the course outline for the Master of Education degree in Administration, Economics and Planning. The following is the course outline:

1. Principles of Economics and Planning;
2. Overview of Educational Administration;
3. General Course in Curriculum Development;
4. Research Methodology;
5. Theories of Administration;
6. Primary School Administration;
7. Secondary School Administration;
8. Fundamentals of National Education and Administration;
9. Policies and Educational Institutions;
10. Micro Economics of Education;
11. Macro Economics of Education;
12. Education and Socio-Economic Development;

13. General Problems of Educational Planning in Developing Countries;
14. Methodologies of Educational Planning with Special Reference to Developing Countries;
15. Planning for Change in Educational Systems;
16. Administrative Factors and Educational Planning.[13]

The first four courses are compulsory. Those majoring in administration take the five courses immediately below the compulsory ones. The remaining eight courses are taken by those majoring in economics and planning. In addition to the courses, the University of Nairobi, like the University of Zimbabwe, requires candidates to write a thesis as a partial fulfillment of the requirement for the Master of Education (Administration). However, the candidates of M.Ed. of the University of Zimbabwe are required to take more courses and complete theses within one year, while at the University of Nairobi less courses are offered and candidates spend a whole year writing theses.

Course Descriptions For Graduate Programmes in Educational Administration

Samples of course descriptions for Master of Education Administration appear in the appendix. The first appendix shows the course description of the Master of Education Administration and Planning of Bayero University in Nigeria. The appendix two shows the Postgraduate Certificate of Educational Management and Administration at Cave Hill, the University of West Indies. Ironically, course one listed by the two universities are very similar. Courses on Research Techniques, Evaluation and Assessment taught at Cave Hill do not seem to have their counterparts at Bayero University, while courses related to educational planning offered by Bayero University do not seem to have their counterparts at Cave Hill College. One can, therefore, conclude that there are similarities and differences between the courses offered for graduate programmes in the Universities of the Commonwealth Caribbean and Africa just as the history of the two regions have similarities and differences. Perhaps there should be a move to narrow our differences through exchange programmes. There is a significant omission, however, on all the courses I have analyzed and discussed with you. None of them seems to address itself to financial management. Unless that aspect of educational administration is covered elsewhere, perhaps we should ask ourselves, "Why the omission and what can be done about it?"

APPENDIX I

Bayero University, Nigeria

Course Descriptions--M.Ed. Administration and Planning

Unit One: Organizational Theory and Roles.
Characteristics of Social Organizations; The Concept of Bureaucracy; Organizational and Management; Application of Management; Principles of Schools; Role Theory; Role Conflict; The Role of the Secondary School Principal.

Unit Two: Administration of Nigerian Education.
Federal Government Policy on Education; The Role of the Federal Government; The Role of the State Government; The Role of the Local Government.

Unit Three: The Universal Primary Education.
Aims and Implementation of the U.P.E. Scheme; The 1976 U.P.E.; Effects of the U.P.E. on Manpower; Changes in Secondary Education as a Result of the U.P.E.

Unit Four: Educational Development and Planning.
The Role of Education and Social and Economic Development; The Concept of Human Resources and Their Development; The Definition, Substance, Strategy and Subject Matter of Educational Planning and Organization; Methods and Principles of Educational Planning; The Basic Activities in Preparing a Draft of the Educational Plan.

Unit Five: Approaches to Educational Planning.
Social Demand Approach; Manpower Forecasts; Cost-benefit Analysis; Normative Method; Saturation Co-efficient.

Unit Six: Aspects of Educational Planning.
Qualitative Aspects; Administrative Aspects; Social Aspects.[14]

APPENDIX II

University of West Indies--Cave Hill

Course Descriptions: Certificate in Educational Management and Administration

1. Theories of Organization and Administration.
   A study of organizational theories and their application to educational institutions and an examination of the dynamics of the behaviour of the educational administrator, including role theory and role conflict.

2. School Organization and Administration.
   This is the major section of the course; it is concerned with the organization, administration and evaluation of educational systems and institutions.

3. The Government of Education and Educational Organizations.
   The Government of Educational Institutions; Institutional and Central Political Framework; Organs of Influence, etc. laws, rules and regulations.

4. Research Techniques and Research Into Organization.
   An introduction to basic research techniques that are particularly suited to the study of educational problems and organizations.

5. Evaluation and Assessment.
   The evaluation of pupil achievement, teacher effectiveness, instructional programmes, schools, etc.[15].

REFERENCES

[1]Eric Williams, The University in the Caribbean, Universities for a Changing World (London: David and Charles, Newton Abbot 1975).

[2]The University of the West Indies, Calendar Vol. II, (P.O. Box 64, Bridgetown, Barbados: 1983/84).

[3]Ibid.

[4]Statistical Reports and Studies, Higher Education Trends, Unesco.

[5]Ronald Dore, Diploma Disease:Education Qualification and Development, (Los Angeles: University of California Press 1975).

[6]William C. Strasser Jr., "Postgraduate Continuing Education for College Personnel," Educational Record, Vol. 60, No. 2, (The Journal of the American Council on Education: Spring 1979).

[7]University of Dar-es-Salaam, Prospectus, (Dar-es-Salaam, Tanzania: 1984/85).

[8]University of Zimbabwe, Prospectus, (Harare, Zimbabwe: 1985).

[9]The Commonwealth Universities Yearbook, Vol. 2, (1984).

[10]University of West Indies, Calendar, Vol II, (1983/84).

[11]University of Zimbabwe, Prospectus, (1985).

[12]Ibid.

[13]Kenyatta University College, Calendar, (Nairobi, Kenya: 1983/84).

[14]Bareyo University, Prospectus,(Kano, Nigeria: 1980/81).

[15]University of West Indies, Calendar, (1983/84).

LEARNING RESOURCES FOR THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN THE THIRD WORLD

by

Susie Rodwell and Paul Hurst
Department of Education in Developing Countries
University of London Institute of Education

This paper was prepared for a Symposium on "The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas," sponsored by the Caribbean Society of Educational Administrators in association with the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administrators. It presents some of the findings and experiences of the research project "Training Third World Educational Administrators--Methods and Materials" which is funded by the Overseas Development Administration, UK. The views expressed in this paper are those of the authors and should not be taken to represent the views of the ODA.

INTRODUCTION

The ODA-funded research project originated out of a concern for the severe shortage of appropriate materials for use in the training of third world educational administrators. The original project aims were to survey the provision of training in educational administration in a number of developing countries and its quality in relation to identified training needs; to study the nature of this provision particularly the alternative strategies, training methods and materials which are employed; and to develop, in collaboration with third world trainers, materials for use in future training programmes. In the course of time we recognised that a key role the project could also be playing, and one which we have seen increasingly as a major objective, is to stimulate institutional materials development processes and the adoption of more diverse training methodologies by third world trainers.

The purposes of this paper therefore, are to outline some of the findings, impressions and experiences from the past three and a half years of the project's life. We look first at the present preoccupation with educational administrator training, suggesting a number of problem areas that will need to be tackled if new training initiatives are to have a significant impact in the future. One critical issue is lack of training materials, and we provide an overview of methods and materials used in training and examine questions concerning materials development, dissemination and utilisation. We then describe the materials we have developed and discuss some of the findings from the field trials and our initial conclusions. Finally we attempt to synthesize these various strands in order to present for discussion some more generalisable conclusions concerning learning resources for the professional development of educational administrators in the third world.

The paper is thus in four parts.

1. The professional development of educational administrators--patterns of training and problem areas
2. Methods and materials--an overview and examination of issues
3. The ODA project materials--their development, dissemination and evaluation
4. Learning Resources--towards some conclusions

1. THE PROFESSIONAL DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

(a) Educational Preoccupations - Past and Present

Education in the developing world as in industrialised countries is rather prone to waves of enthusiasm for some particular aspect of activity which is ultimately supplanted by another. Right now, training educational administrators seems to be an area of intensifying interest, at least in quite a few different parts of the world.

There has been a succession of different educational preoccupations in the third world since the days of newly achieved independence in the early 60's.

1. The build-up of secondary and higher education to meet shortfalls in well qualified manpower.

2. The generation of many curriculum development projects aimed at making the content of education more relevant and less influenced by colonial perceptions of what was appropriate.

3. The disappointing love affair with educational technology, which promised to make education more effective, cheaper and more widely disseminated, and which largely failed to deliver these promises.

4. Educational planning and the push to rapidly increase enrolments. Massive achievements in enrolments were accomplished, but against a background of rising population figures and falling economic growth figures, the anticipations of universal primary education in many developing countries by 1980 proved a cruel disappointment. Educational planning has come under heavy attack since it is widely perceived to be unduly centralist and undemocratic as well as prone to margins of error in guessing the future which are so substantial as to put the utility of the planning exercise in considerable doubt.

5. Nonformal education as the liferaft on which optimistic pundits seek to escape from the sinking ship of formal educational systems which are said to be irrelevant, ineffective and inefficient. (Deschooling--the extreme reaction--never caught on in the Third World, thank goodness).

So now the training of educational administrators/managers (call them what you will), seems to be one of the current and growing enthusiasms. Curiously this preoccupation is equally visible in industrialised countries, as in the Third World. For some reason, Australia, Canada and some (but by no means most) parts of the USA have given administrator training priority and emphasis for a good few years now. Indeed, a small number of institutions in the USA have a track record going back decades, although their work was often heavily oriented to research and theory-building as opposed to training. Elsewhere, the emphasis

is fairly new. Britain, for example, has just launched a national scheme for the training of head teachers, with a centre currently located at Bristol University, and there are some parallels in other OCED countries.

Many of these new developments are clearly based on dissatisfaction with prior arrangements. Three questions immediately pose themselves.

1. Why this new preoccupation with training educational administrators?

2. What is the nature of current training provision?

3. Is it having a significant effect or is it likely to?

These are questions we shall address in the rest of this part of the paper.

(b) The New Emphasis

The new emphasis on training educational administrators has its roots in the experiences of the 60's and 70's. As remarked earlier, these decades saw a succession of attempts to extend the provision of education in developing countries, to define more relevant goals and contents, to improve effectiveness and raise the quality of education, and to make it more efficient thereby increasing quantity and quality without escalating costs. In broad terms, the achievements in extending access to education have been impressive even if they fell short of the early optimistic targets. But a considerable price has been paid. Many would argue that standards have fallen (albeit compared to earlier systems that were much more elitist) and costs have not been significantly reduced. Perhaps most significantly, the belief that the models of education which the third world inherited from the West are irrelevant is still widespread. Yet efforts to reform education have made relatively little progress (at least in relation to the early expectations of what would be accomplished). Hence, the current diagnosis that it is the implementation of these reforms that is the weak link in the chain. If education is managed at the middle and lower levels by people who have had no training, then--the argument runs--it is not surprising to find that they are not particularly effective, efficient or responsive to change.

One of the principal agencies to expose this view is the World Bank, and it is no coincidence that several of the national institutes being established in third world countries were set up with World Bank funds. However, the Bank does not dictate to borrowers what they must borrow although it wields considerable influence, and there is no doubt that this analysis is widely shared in Ministries of Education as it is in other agencies such as UNESCO. It is hard to disagree with this consensus, although there are several dangers inherent in it. One is that training administrators will become another in the list of transient fads or gimmicks to which education is prone, to be replaced by

another as soon as it appears that results will be hard to come by and not to be achieved overnight. Another is that committment will be rhetorical rather than real, and that token efforts will merely scratch the surface of the problem. A third is that the training programmes are likely to succeed in training people in systems' maintenance but not in innovation and reform.

(c) Current Provision in Developing Countries

In developing countries, attention to the training of administrators is by no means evenly distributed. Some countries give it much more weight than others. We can distinguish five principal forms of provision.

1. Ad hoc one-off courses or conferences organised by departments of the Ministry of Education, or local authorities*.

2. Courses organised by university departments of education.

3. On-the-job-training.

4. Training abroad.

5. Specialised Ministry sponsored institutes for the training of educational administrators.

In the first form of provision, we find ministries laying on courses or conferences within the Ministry itself as a rule. These are provided for the planners, the curriculum developers, the inspectorate, office managers, local directors of education, but usually on an occasional basis. There is not normally any sequential basis to this provision--it attempts to deal with specific problems as they occur,--and it rarely attempts to cover the mass of principals and deputy principals who are usually too numerous to be catered for. Weaknesses of this provision are numerous. There is usually little or no investigation into the real training needs of the participants and very often the courses are mainly intended to inform participants of some new initiative rather than to equip them to carry it out. The 'trainers' are often carrying out a propaganda role; they may have little training skill or ability; not infrequently they are ignorant of education and will have been brought in temporarily from a national institute of public administration or some university equivalent. Also there is often little follow-up in terms of supporting the participants in their subsequent work or evaluating the impact of the original input.

*This term is used to denote any regional, provincial, district or local authority charged with providing educational services.

The second form of provision--by university departments of education--has also been exposed to a considerable volume of criticism. The courses usually lead to an academic award, and this may mean that they are too long and too preoccupied with the acquisition of academic knowledge and skills which are different from those needed by the administrator. A frequent complaint is that these courses are too 'theoretical' and insufficiently "practical." This distinction is really a naive one; the problem is more that such courses tend to stress acquisition of knowledge (of facts and theories) rather than acquisition of skills or competencies. Of course in reality one needs the most appropriate mixture of both, and ultimately the distinction between "theory" and "practice" breaks down; "there is nothing so practical as a good theory," as Kurt Lewin remarked--the problem is to know what theories are good ones and to discern their practical implications. Also, academic courses do entail the acquisition of skills--taking notes, writing succinct presentations, listening and exposition, gutting texts for their essential signifance under pressure, and others which are very much germane to the administrator's task. Nevertheless many administrative skills, particularly in the human relations domain are given little airing in these courses other than by exposure to such theoretical fields as organizational sociology, industrial psychology, systems theory, and development economics. The chances of administrators being able to improve the morale of their subordinates as a result remains doubtful. Even more mundane items such as, how to run a staff-meeting, or a parent-teacher association, or how to do the accounts, tend to receive scant attention. Further, university sponsored courses often apply excessively stringent admissions and assessment criteria in relation to the employer's and the employees' needs in terms of job-performance.

On the job training, our third category, is rarely practised in any systematic way. School principals are often expected to make the transition from classroom teacher to head teacher on the basis of classroom experience alone. A fortunate few will have served a period as deputy principal under the watchful eye of an experienced and helpful head, or a novice inspector may be teamed with a more experienced one, but whether any formal training other than "sitting with Nellie" or "learning by doing" takes place is unlikely. One of the few countries anywhere to have a formal scheme of principals training their deputies is Japan.

Another form of on the job training is in the use of distance teaching materials --self instructional manuals or correspondence courses. These are not widespread at the moment but there is growing interest in the techniques. The Alama Iqbal Open University of Pakistan provides correspondence courses for educational administrators, for instance. However, doubts have been expressed whether distance teaching can effectively improve skills, although its scope in improving the knowledge base of trainees is not questioned.

The fourth form of provision, training abroad--most frequently on academic award-bearing course in foreign universities--has usually been reserved for higher-level administrators and planners. It is, of course, very expensive and in most countries depends on the supply of aid-funded scholarships from foreign donors. (One curious omission in the past, which is now beginning to receive some attention, is courses for the training of trainers.) The same kind of criticisms of university-type courses reported earlier are levelled at this type of training, and in some instances such courses may be even more irrelevant. It is not unkown for administrators to attend courses in industrialised countries which are intended purely for nationals of those countries. In Britain, for example, trainees from Third World countries may find themselves on courses which demand a detailed knowledge of the workings of British local government and the Department of Education and Science, and which rarely contain even an element of comparative study of administration in other European countries. Indeed, our observation is that educational administration training in many parts of the world is very parochial; we have known trainers to assert that they have nothing to learn from other countries.

This raises a very important question, to which we shall return later, concerning the relevance of training aims, contents and methods developed in any one context to any other. Interestingly, one form of foreign training that is developing, and increasingly, is for groups of trainees from one third world country to go to another (e.g. Sri Lankan administrators being sent to India and Malaysia) for staff development purposes.

The fifth form of provision, that of national institutes for training educational administrators--normally sponsored by the Ministry or part of--is a more recent phenomenon. There is quite a clutch of these newly-hatched outfits --particularly around the rim (and in the middle) of the Indian Ocean and the South China Sea. For example:

- NIEPA (National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration --India)
- SCEA (Staff College for Educational Administration--Sri Lanka)
- IDEA (Institute for the Development of Educational Administration-- one in Thailand, one in Philippines)
- KESI (Kenya Education Staff Institute)
- MANTEP (Management Training for Educational Personnel--Tanzania)
- MIE (Mauritius Institute of Education)
- NIEM (National Institute of Educational Management--Malaysia)
- Management and Training Centre (recent initiative of the Ministry of Education--Ethopia)

(d) The Effects of the New Emphasis

It is too early to say whether the new emphasis being given to training administrators is having a significant qualitative impact. Most of the new institutes have not been in existence long enough to have done more than begin to address the needs. Even in countries like India and Malaysia, where the training programmes have been in operation for a number of years, the numbers of personnel requiring training are very large. In Sri Lanka, for example, the numbers of principals, inspectors and education officers who should receive training is far greater than the Staff College can cope with. As a result, the SCEA concentrates on the Columbo district and four pilot areas in which an experimental management reform is under way. Regional management centres in other parts of the island are intended to cater to others, but these are in their infancy. In Tanzania there are 10,000 primary school principals in need of training (apart from other categories), but most of the staff of MANTEP are currently overseas being trained themselves.

If the new initiatives are to have a significant impact in the future, there are a number of problem areas that will need to be tackled. The following problematique is of course a general one, based on our experience of a wide variety of institutions. Not every problem afflicts every institution, though many experience most of them.

(i) Inadequate budgets

Some of the new institutes are run on a shoestring. They are housed in poor accommodation, often premises that have been vacated or abandoned by someone else. There is insufficient equipment, especially transportation. There are not enough ancillary personnel - in one place a trainer with UNESCO experience and a Master's degree does all the photocopying. Very few institutes have a research/evaluation officer, or spend significant sums on these crucial activities. It is essential to create an impression on administrative trainees that the training institute is itself a model of efficient organization, otherwise they are likely to be unmoved by the rhetoric of the trainers.

(ii) Shortage of suitable training materials

Materials production is a very time consuming exercise which requires a good deal of special skills. Indeed, being a good trainer and a good materials designer are by no means identical. Trainers often have timetables that leave insufficient time for generating materials, and this increases the pressure on them to use traditional methods, particularly the lecture.

(iii) Undertrained trainers

The trainers themselves sometimes lack sufficient knowledge of their own subject matter, especially in regard to having a critical approach to it. Planning techniques, for example, are often taught without any discussion of their limitations. The trainers, in some instances, have inadequate knowledge and experience of alternative training methods and techniques; their style and approach is frequently that of the teacher rather than the trainer. In general though, this problem of undertrained trainers is being tackled because it is an area where aid agencies can fairly easily supply technical assistance (although one wonders sometimes about the appropriateness of some of this assistance).

(iv) Neglect of research into training needs and impact of training

Research is a greatly neglected area. Very little systematic study of the training needs of the clientele is carried out. When there is some effort it is usually done by the trainers who frequently have little or no research background. Gross sampling errors, ambiguous questionnaires, prejudged conclusions, invalid inferences and other weaknesses are common. The results often indicate broad vague topic areas without specifying the skills or competencies that are needed to perform a particular job in a particular context. The results are similar with impact studies. Evaluation consists, all too frequently, of enquiring whether trainees found the course useful, and which bits they found most useful. Whether training actually improves job performance is a very difficult question to answer, and it is significant that the few studies which make a serious attempt to answer it usually find little evidence in favour. This may, of course, be due to the methodological problem.

(v) Lack of a coherent national training policy

A fifth problem area, and one which to a great extent contributes to those institutional problems we have already mentioned, is the lack, in some countries, of any coherent training policy on educational administrator improvement and poor coordination and integration of training provision. It seems that many of the questions covering the status and priority to be given to training, trainee selection and incentives for training, personnel policies and so on are insufficiently explored for the new initiatives to achieve maximum impact.

2. METHODS AND MATERIALS - AN OVERVIEW AND EXAMINATION OF ISSUES

The first part of this paper highlighted some of the contextual factors surrounding the professional development of educational administrators, and looked at patterns of training provision. A number of problem areas were identified including the neglect of adequate training needs analysis and the issue of appropriate and suitable methods and materials.

In order to provide additional reference points for our subsequent analysis of learning resources for professional development of educational administrators in the third world it will be useful now to:

(a) provide an overview of methods used in training,

(b) highlight some key issues surrounding methods and consider some of the arguments for and against their use, the issue of cultural appropriateness, the evidence which exists concerning their effectiveness and the factors affecting the choice of method,

(c) look at materials needs and availability,

(d) examine the experiences of curriculum innovation in other sectors with a view to identifying significant factors associated with successful materials development, dissemination and implementation.

(a) Overview of methods used in training administrators

The descriptive literature on teaching methods and materials used in preparing educational administrators is extensive, particularly as it pertains to the West. The methods of instruction range from traditional lectures to case studies and modern instructional technology such as the use of computer simulations. It is evident that a wide range of methods are being used.

Many of the non-traditional methods now used in training educational administrators derive from the experience in fields other than education. Thus case study methods, in-basket exercises and simulations have their origins in war games employed in military training. These were quickly adopted and used extensively in management training, as a number of standard references have documented.[1]

These developments have had some influence on the education sector, and inevitably there has been an increasing tendency to explore the potential and value of such approaches for educational administration training. Recent years have seen a shift from learning through theoretical and knowledge packed lectures to learning and developing educational administrative skills through practice, experience and less traditional methods.

A further influence on approaches adopted in educational administrator training, particularly in North America, is the competency-based training movement. CBT has been used for developing training models in a number of fields, but only recently has it been applied to educational administration training. The approach rigorously and systematically identifies what competencies are required of effective leaders (or other groups), by developing and testing competency indicators which describe a leader's performance in terms of a large number of competency statements, and the level of competency required. On the basis of this analysis, project teams can develop instructional programmes and materials for identified competencies, together with assessment tools. One example of this is Project ASK (Administrative Skills and Knowledge) at the University of Alberta in Canada which has developed educational programmes and modular materials to cover selected priority tasks of school principals.[2]

A number of overviews of educational administrator preparation have highlighted the developments in the non traditional methods. In an early overview of the American situation, Wynn[3] reported optimistically on the progress in the development of what he calls 'unconventional' methods and materials (eg. case studies, simulation exercises and role-plays), discussing their advantages and disadvantages and providing examples of their use. However, a more recent review of preparatory programmes in American institutions[4] reveals that the predominant mode of instruction amongst the 375 institutions surveyed was classroom lectures and discussions, with groups of 10-30 students. Moreover, whilst some use of simulation techniques was reported by professors, the students surveyed did not support that they had actually experienced these extensively. It appears, therefore, that although most course descriptions indicate that a range of teaching methodologies are used, there seems to be little documentary evidence to support these claims, or comprehensive surveys which indicate the extent of use; more frequently the literature reveals the lack of use of such methods.

Reports of methods used in the third world have indicated that there is a trend towards greater utilisation of non-traditional methods, but no detailed surveys of methods have been found in the literature. A Unesco review of programmes for training school administrators and supervisors in the Far East revealed that methods used included lecture-type sessions; panel discussions; viewing of films; in-basket training; group dynamics; simulated games; and role playing.[5]

The Unesco Regional Office in Bangkok has been instrumental in enhancing the capability of national training centres in the Far East in carrying out their training programmes in educational planning and administration. Activities include training and materials development workshops involving the development and testing of distance teaching materials in educational administration. A recent project evaluation workshop noted the need to improve existing materials, develop further materials and explore the use of a wider variety of training methods.[6]

(b) Training methods - key issues

(i) Rational for the use of non-traditional methods

The case for non-traditional approaches to training is based on a number of arguments. The widespread impact of management sciences on educational administration has, to some extent, resulted in trainers becoming less interested in theory and knowledge and more interested in the development of attitudes and skills, and there are many who now consider that the primary purpose of training is to improve the skills area. To achieve this, it is argued, a trainee needs practice and feedback, and, therefore, methods must be sought which allow this and which go beyond the "sterility of traditional classroom based training."[7] Training should permit the learner to try out skills and techniques and profit by mistakes in a framework which provides important elements of their environment without including those leading to danger or unnecessary complexity.

A key feature of this view about training is the importance of experience. Experiential training is based on the direct experiences of the participants as opposed to the vicarious experience garnered through didactic approaches. It is also an inductive rather than a deductive process--the participant discovers for himself or herself the learnings offered by the experiential process. One of the major proponents of learning through experience is Kolb[8] who presents it as a cycle consisting of: the concrete experience, reflective observation, abstract conceptualization, and active experimentation. The debate surrounding the theory-practice conflict, and the concept of the transfer of training (or learning) through provision of "reality-oriented" experiences has thus been the motivating force behind the adoption of new participatory techniques. A further argument is that many non-traditional methods, for example simulations, not ony provide an experience of reality which will enable transfer of learning, but also are the most effective method of teaching management practice to large numbers of students. Often they are the only substitute available for supervised field attachments.

The case for non-traditional methods is supported by what is known of how adults learn. Adult development theories describe a variety of elements or environmental conditions that facilitate development towards maturity. Most significantly, all highlight a basic belief in the learner. They have important implications for adult education and the general prescriptions for ways to promote adult learning; educational principles employed by trainers of educational administrators need to be based on adult and not child learning.

This distinction, between andragogy and pedagogy has been highlighted by Knowles.[9] The former is described as a process model where the teacher (trainer) acts as a facilitator who creates a mechanism for mutual learning and designs a pattern of learning experiences with suitable techniques and materials.

In the pedagogical method, the teacher decides the knowledge or skills to be transmitted, organises content into a logical order and "teaches" using lectures, readings, discussions and other expositive methods.

In sum, the arguments for the more extensive use of non-traditional training methods derive from the key concepts of andragogy and the transfer of learning. The applications of these arguments within the specialist field of educational administration is less widespread than in other spheres of adult education, but is increasing.

(ii) Arguments against the use of non-traditional methods

There are a number of arguments presented against the use of non-traditional methods. These can best be illustrated by a consideration of the factors which appear to militate against their wider use. The development of materials in support of many non-traditional methods, such as in-basket exercises, simulations and role-playing situations is arduous and time-consuming, and the expertise often not available either to develop the materials required or to handle the method in the training situation.

Such methods can be felt as a threat by both trainers and participants; the participants are confronted with difficult situations in which their responses and behaviours are exposed and challenged by their colleagues and on the course; the trainer can no longer depend on being the teacher and the font of wisdom, but becomes a facilitator of a unique learning experience.

There are also numerous logistic problems. The methods have implications in terms of space depending, as they frequently do, on intensive small group work and/or large areas for simulation situations; most in-service educational activities are heavily subscribed and space is usually at a premium. Time is another important factor working, as it does, against the more extensive use of human relations techniques such as sensitivity training and T groups, which achieve best results through a series of events or experiences over a period of time.

Most critical, however, are the concerns often expressed at the extent to which learning is actually transferred to the job, and the influence of cultural factors on the use and acceptability of methods developed in a different (western/business) context.

(iii) The issue of cultural appropriateness

As we have seen, many non-traditional methods are supported by andragogic concepts; they are also influenced by psychoanalytic theories, and ideas of inter-personal competition and the need for achievement. Research, most of which has been conducted in the West, appears to validate many of these principles, revealing the importance of such characteristics (eg. respect for personality, participation in decision-making, freedom of expression and mutuality of responsibility for learning) for effective adult education.

However, it is important to consider the possible cultural bias of the assumptions of learner-centred approaches derived from andragogy. In recent years, attention has increasingly been given to the suitability of transferring to developing countries western models of professional preparation and development of educational administration, and to the relevance of theories of school administration.[10] However, discussions about the appropriateness of western methods in developing countries tend to take place within the broader framework of cross cultural training,[11] or focus on experiences in the public administration and management field. The writer, Thiagarajan[12], highlights a number of problems involved in running behavioural science-oriented management training programmes in developing countries. Based on the experience of programmes in Asia, he stresses the importance of ensuring that management training is integrated with the prevailing social and organisational systems. He observes that traditional rote-learning and the status difference between teacher and taught mitigates against the small group behaviourally orientated program. He questions the relevance of the human relations methods as they are based on alien assumptions about student-teacher roles. There are differences in the third world with regards to participation, motivation and in the potential for transfer of learning because of the possibly greater dysfunctions that exist between learning and real life attitudes, the complexities of reward, selection and promotion procedures and the organisational climate. He concludes that whilst there are some universally related and unique areas of behaviour, there is "little systematic evidence as to where and to what extent cross-national differences exist and what environmental factors explain these differences".

A contrasting view is given by Kindervatter,[13] a non-formal adult educator, who suggests that the hierarchical patterns of dominance and deference evident in Asian cultures would appear to conflict with the active participation fundamental to learner-centered approach. However, he maintains that these patterns dominate only certain relationships and certain contexts--particularly institutionalised learning and the formal classroom situation. In rural areas a picture emerges of informal learning through peer interaction--villagers sitting together in informal discussion groups. Thus, if the teacher acts in a formal classroom manner the learners will assume formal roles, but if the teacher acts as facilitator the group will behave more similarly to the informal discussion patterns; a learner-centered approach may actually reinforce rather than conflict with traditional values.

There is, clearly, need for much closer attention to be given to the question of cultural appropriateness. Certainly, no sweeping generalisations are possible, moreover, in discussing the suitability, or otherwise, of transferring western originated methods to the third world. It might also be pertinent to ask about the transfer of American originated methods and innovations to Europe.

(iv) Evaluation of methods--the evidence

The evaluation of methods and materials for preparing educational administrators presents many complex problems. What has handicapped evaluation suggests Wynn,[14] "is the massive criterion problem," i.e. the inadequacy of theory in educational administration results in quite imperfect criteria for evaluation. Moreover, when one considers non-traditional methods, whereas orthodox methods are usually directed towards cognitive development, unorthodox methods presume to stimulate cognitive and affective development and the latter is difficult to assess.

Partly for this reason, much of the evidence regarding the benefits of such methods is subjective, random and derived from the opinion of participants and trainers. Very little detailed or rigorous evaluation has been carried out, particularly with regard to the transferability of learning to the work situation. However, in one of the few reviews of research on methods of human relations training used in educational administrator training, Schmuck[15] maintains that transfer from workshop to school is possible with well designed workshops including human relations training, classroom diagnosis, problem solving techniques, and role play.

If we look at research on the effectiveness of methods when they are used in other areas of management training, the evidence is also sparse. In the management education field, Burgoyne[16] reviewed research on teaching methods and found no "pure" research studies on case-study methods but a large number on T-Group and encounter group methods. This, he suggests, is because there has been so much controversy surrounding the latter, particularly concerning the possibility of damaging psychological side effects.

We can, however, draw on some useful findings from the teacher education field. Joyce and Showers[17] analysed over 200 research studies on methods used in the training of teachers to acquire teaching skills. They used a two-dimensional matrix, one dimension being made up of five components of training--or training methods--theory, demonstration, practice, feedback and classroom application, the other dimension being different levels of impact on the learner: awareness, concepts and organised knowledge, principles and skills, application and problem solving. They argued that it is only when the fourth level of impact (aplication and problem-solving) is reached that we can expect impact on the education of children in the classroom. Whilst acknowledging the paucity and limitations of research to date into the effectiveness of various teaching

methods, they concluded that the knowledge base is firm enough to support their hypothesis, that in training teachers all five components of training are needed to ensure the impact of training and promote the transfer of learning to the actual classroom situation. It is highly probable that the same thesis holds true for the training of educational administrators.

(v) Factors affecting the choice of method

Despite the lack of empirical evidence for or against non-traditional methods, attempts have been made to produce "models" for selecting "appropriate" methods for training administrators.[18] These models highlight the relationship between various training methods and dimensions such as: principles of learning; degree of involvement, risk, interaction, learner activity; the structure and control of content; levels of learning and skills learned.

Since there are so many complex interactions between the various decisions on methods, it is difficult, indeed undesirable, to adopt one strategy or to stick doggedly to the use of one particular method. Few trainers select one theoretical approach to human learning and base their total training strategy on it; the training methods adopted by an experienced trainer or instructional designer will reflect a range of premises from behaviouristic assumptions about stimulus and motivation-response, to those derived from andragogy--either consciously or unconsciously.

All training methods have some comparative advantages and disadvantages which are contingent upon the context, and there is no such thing as the training method. One of the most important factors affecting choice will be the nature of the learning objectives, and a further significant influence will be the various situational parameters which prevail. Trainers will need to vary their choice of strategy and methods according to the situation, because what is effective in one learning situation may not be in another. Equally, it should be borne in mind that often a combination of training methods will result in heightening the learning impact. In the final analysis, a decision to adopt a particular training method may well be influenced by the availabilty of "materials", however undesirable this may be.

(c) Materials for training educational administrators

Trainers have three main options in meeting their requirements for materials:

- Using "published" materials,
- Adapting existing materials,
- Preparing suitable local materials.

(i) Published materials for use in educational administrator training

In the last few years there have been a number of initiatives to promote the use of participatory trianing methods and stimulate the production of materials for use in training third world educational administrators (this is of course the major aim or four project). Particularly noable are the activities of Unesco, The Commonwealth Secretariat and the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (CCEA).

The CCEA, for example, has recently produced "The Commonwealth Casebook for School Administrators,"[19] which is a useful collection of case studies drawn from Commonwealth countries. The Secretariat has also published "Leadership in the Management of Education: Handbook for Educational Supervisors",[20] which is aimed at both practitioners and trainers and evolved out of a series of regional workshops mounted in the seventies.

A range of self-instructioal print-based materials for training educational planners is being produced by Unesco's, Division of Educational Policy and Planning,[21] and Unesco's Regional Office in Asia at Bankok have produced a range of basic modular materials in educational planning and management.[22] The latter have been widely used and adapted by other countries (eg. Sri Lanka, Nepal, Philippines) with a correspondence version being used by Allama Iqbal Open University, Pakistan on MA distance teaching courses.

It is evident that there is still a dearth of suitable materials for educational administrator training in third world countries and this derives from numerous and understandable constraints. The design of materials must come out of careful consideration of many key factos, particularly local needs. Looking to western sources for packaged materials is sometimes an undesirable solution and ultimately a national decision must be reached as to who should produce such materials given the apparent demand for them.

Certainly, there are a number of sophisticated simulations or multi-media packages for training educational administrators in the West (mainly of American origin). Where such materials offer a degree of flexibility and can be readily modified and adapted they may be of some use to trainers outside their country of origin. However, the problem of materials produced in the West, and, indeed, by international agencies is that they can rarely be completely appropriate to a country's specific training needs, and their amin role might be for comparative analysis, and to provide ideas and prototypes for local materials development.

(ii) Adapting existing materials

The aim of some of the international materials development projects is not to disseminate documents to serve as recipes or standard models to be applied indifferently in various contexts, but, as is the intention with Unesco EPP training materials "to present materials which can be applied to different situations after local experimentation and adaptation to local needs."[23]

Certainly, some materials can be relatively easily adapted and it is often surprising how similar the day to day problems can be across different countries and continents. Adaptation could consist of the renaming of characters in a case study or role play, altering job designations and organisational features, or more general re-wording to provide, for example, a more "recognisable" background and more realistic items for an in-basket exercise.

The rational behind arguments for adapting existing materials (rather than original preparation) is cost and personnel considerations. However, there does come a point at which it is more costly and time consuming to adapt and modify existing materials which do not altogether fit desired requirements than to prepare new materials ab initio. The advantages and disadvantages of adaptation therefore, need to be carefully weighed.

(iii) The preparation of local materials

The alternative to international/centralised production for possible local adaptation, is production in-country. The problem here is resource constraints and lack of expertise, although undoubtedly the next few years will see an increasing range of locally produced materials. Indeed, a number of national training agencies, such as IDEA in the Philippines and NIEPA in India, have already produced a range of case study materials, simulation exercises and role plays. Materials developed by NIEPA, for example, include a human relations training package for school administrator training consisting of a brief background sheet, a videotape showing an incident, and a set of questions for case-study analysis.[24] The Unesco Asian network has also explored the possibility of strengthening the written word or correspondence lesson units with audio visual support through audio cassettes/tapes and videotapes.

Much of the material in this area is difficult to identify; the use of a specific case study or simulation exercise can be a very personal affair, and even within institutions the availability of a simulation on educational planning produced by one lecturer does not mean that it will be known about or even used by others. Materials adoption is a problematic issue as we shall see in the next section. Ideally, material for use in educational administration training should be produced by local trainers and lecturers, for use within their own very specific contexts, and to meet clearly identified learning objectives.

(d) Materials--dissemination and implementation problems

The experience of the past quarter of a century's efforts at educational reform in both developing and industrialised countries reveals that it appears to be the rule rather than the exception for efforts to implement innovations, be they major organisational changes or small scale curriculum inovations and associated materials, to be less than wholly successful. It is beyond the scope of this paper to review the literature on education innovation,[25] but it will be useful to look briefly at some of the problems encountered in implementing curricular innovations with a view to seeing what lessons, if any, have been learnt and what the implications might be for our own particular area of concern; materials for educational administrator training.

There have been a large number of American studies of educational change efforts[26] which examine why many of the large scale primary and secondary school curriculum and materials development projects of the last two decades have had limited impact. The UK experiences in educational change and in particular curriculum innovation have also been widely documented, particularly the Schools Council projects.

Upwards of 180 curriculum projects were funded by the Schools Council, the central curriculum development agency which functioned between 1964-1982. Many projects started well and failed to get institutionalised, and even apparently effective projects fizzled out because funding ended and teachers were left without the support they still needed. A common phenomena with a number of large scale projects is "innovation without change,"[27] where an innovation can be taught extremely badly by teachers who acquire the materials without the necessary training and who either slavishly adhere to them or else mix them up with other conflicting methods; thus, even when implemented, changes in the materials used in the classroom are not matched by changes in methodology or teacher philosophy.

Many studies in the past decade have shown that project implementation is often only partial, that project aims are often misunderstood or distorted and that adaptation frequently takes place both in the innovation and the system in which it is introduced.[28] One of the problems facing curriculum evaluators is what criteria should be used in judging success. Do we count only projects that have been "adopted" by schools? Or, do we take a "mutual adaptation" perspective, and if so, how do we make judgements about the adaptation of the project design and the relative impact of the philosophy and materials? If the materials are used in a way that is alien to the project philosophy, is this taken up? Certainly adaptation is more usual than adoption and it is probably quite healthy that a user modifies innovations to meet local conditions rather than swallowing innovations whole.

Whilst we find that considerable research has been done in the process of implementing educational change in industrialised countries, and that there is a greater understanding of the variables that determine success or failure of change programmes, other than a few notable studies,[29] there has been little detailed research on the process of implementing educational change in developing countries.

However, a number of significant points and principles are prominent in many of the discussions concerning factors affecting implementation, which would seem to be universally applicable. The multi-faceted world of educational change can contribute to our understanding of how best to go about developing and disseminating learning resources for educational administrator training. Materials development is part of the curriculum development process, and success is not just a matter of introducing any new materials. The factors and conditions affecting implementation which are highlighted by Fullan would seem

to be highly relevant to our discussion. He presents these as key principles of implementation:[30]

- Implementation is a process not an event. It occurs gradually or incrementally over time,

- The innovation will get adapted, developed and modified during use,

- Implementation is a process of professional development and growth,

- Implementation is a process during which individuals and groups come to understand and use a change involving new materials, behaviour and thinking,

- Interaction and technical assistance are essential for the socialisation and clarification process,

- There are many practical obstacles to implementation, therefore planning is necessary if problems are to be overcome, and planning is itself an implementation problem,

- One hundred percent implementation is probably not desirable, and in any case is impossible,

- The ultimate aim of implementation should be to develop the capacity of the system, school or individual to process further innovations.

These principles highlight the danger of considering the trainer as a passive recipient and implementer of curricular packages developed by specialists elsewhere, the importance of providing support for successful implementation of packages particularly those requiring changes in trainer philosophy and methodology, and the fact that materials will inevitably be adapted by users.

3. THE ODA PROJECT MATERIALS--DEVELOPMENT, DISSEMINATION, EVALUATION

(a) Rationale for our materials development strategy

When we embarked on the project, we were guided by the principle that the development of methods and materials for educational administrator training must be considered within the context of a number of broader issues, as highlighted in parts 1 & 2 of this paper. The first phase of the project looked at these issues by gathering information from a range of sources. This included a review of the literature, views and feedback obtained from third world trainers (in particular a network of project participants) through questionnaires, discussion, interviews and observations in a range of countries.

A key question was the needs to which training should be directed. As noted in part 1, this is a greatly neglected area, and although a number of national training agencies are starting to systematically address this question, there is still much uncertainty as to the best way of undertaking such analysis. We have accordingly completed a short guide to "Training Needs Analysis".

One major feature of any training needs analysis is the identification of priority target groups. Our initial research highlighted that, the group described as the "middle-level" administrator covering school principals, district education officers and supervisors and inspectors, is most frequently identified as a top priority for training. In citing this group, references have been made to the multiplier effect: the growing numbers of young untrained persons taking on responsibilities for planning, directing and administering educational programmes; the administrative implications of educational innovation; and the increasing autonomy of school principals in some systems. We, therefore, decided to focus our attention on the development of materials for use with this target group.

The question then arose as to what are the key competency requirements in priority task areas of middle level administrators. Here we faced a considerable dilemma, and rather than attempt to develop materials which were very specifically skill or task oriented we chose to adopt a pragmatic approach. We identified what we believed were significant problem areas in educational administration in third world countries, with a view to considering these topics through the materials and providing trainers with a springboard for training in a range of skills as far as they were appropriate or necessary in their contexts. Accordingly, we drew up a list of topics for consideration by our network of participants, and the information and feedback we received through survey work was carefully considered and used to guide our future strategy for materials development.

Before embarking on materials development we also set out to study the nature of present training provisions in third world countries. The course information that we have received suggests a wide range of course objectives, course content and target groups, from the more general courses in educational management and administration to highly specific courses in project planning and management. The extent to which such provisions are meeting trainees' and systems' needs remains unclear in the absence of any thorough impact studies.

Information on the training methods used on courses in the third world has also been provided by our network of participants. Most report the use of lectures, discussions, case studies, role playing, simulations, exercises and field work, but experience suggests that, on the whole, conventional lecture methods still largely predominate in educational administrator training courses worldwide. This is particularly so in the more theoretical knowledge-based university courses, and it is in the shorter in-service course and workshop that the participatory methods are more widely adopted.

The use of innovative training methods and associated materials by trainers appears to be a highly individual affair, and to conclude that the limited use is solely due to the lack of materials is to oversimplify the situation; what may be more significant is the lack of expertise and confidence in developing and employing such methods and materials. This is very evident from discussion with trainers and observation of courses in both developed and developing countries. It is for this reason that we felt that an important task of the research project was to help encourage and promote the effective use of such methods through the provision of carefully designed materials.

The positive response which the project received suggests however, that most third world trainers find the shortage of appropriate training materials a major constraint. As noted in part 2 of this paper, other than a few notable examples of case studies and self-instructional courses there appear to be no "published" and widely distributed materials of this field. Trainers produce their own materials, if at all, and examples of such internally produced materials indicate the preponderance of readings and course notes based on standard academic texts. There is, however, some in-house production of case studies, but it is evident that the constraints of time, money and trainer expertise militate against this being a very widespread practice.

It was obvious to us that no single package could be effective for all countries, and that it was also neither feasible nor desirable to attempt to develop a ready-made package for immediate implementation in any one country. We felt that what we should aim for in our materials was to provide some practical points or departure to enable trainers to draw on international experiences and gain further insights into the possibilities offered by alternative methodologies.

This last point highlights a further important question. Should materials be for the trainer to use on a taught course; packages indicating to trainers how to execute a particular training task and providing materials for them to do so; self-instructional materials for use by trainees; or even some combination of these modes? Responses from participants indicated that they would be most interested in packaged materials combining trainee and trainer oriented components for use on taught courses.

Given these responses and concerns, we embarked on a materials development strategy guided by a number of principles. We felt that the materials should:

- be presented as prototypes for local field testing and adaptation,
- be a package of learning & training resources, (to provide support for both trainee and trainer), rather than individual items such as case studies,
- be flexible and structured in such a way as to allow the various components making up the package to be selected, modified or supplemented to meet local needs,
- reflect current thinking about the most appropriate methodologies for adult learning and transfer of learning.

Accordingly, we embarked on the development of a package of materials entitled "Managing Educational Change." In addition, materials currently in preparation cover the topic, "The Use of Microcomputers in Educational Administration." We have also developed two guides for trainers, one on "Training Needs Analysis," the other on "Training Methods for Educational Administrator Training," reflecting our concern that perhaps the greatest need in this area is in providing support for trainers.

(b) The Materials, "Managing Educational Change"

The overall aim of "Managing Educational Change" (MEC) is to provide prototype materials for a study of the management of educational change and, by implication, management within a changing education system, through an examination of the key issues surrounding educational change and the analysis of the practical considerations of managing change in schools.

The materials are for use on courses for practising school head teachers, although with modification they could be used on courses for middle-level administrators. The theme "Managing Educational Change" is covered through a series of 6 units grouped under two topic headings: "Key issues in Educational Innovation," and "Managing Change in Schools."

These units are designed in such a way that, although reference is made to other units, they each provide a series of activities to form the basis of a complete "learning experience." Each unit consists of a number of components, the core being a series of worksheets for trainers and participants corresponding to the activities which make up the unit. They are designed on the cafeteria principle, and we anticipate that trainers will select units to meet local training needs. Units can be combined in a variety of ways, either to enable a different emphasis within a training programme, or to form the basis for a broader programme when supplemented by additional materials, lecturers from outside, field visits, etc.

The package is not presented as a rigid syllabus, it merely suggests a possible approach to the structuring of a series of learning experiences based on the activities making up the units which are themselves provided as examples of how issues could be treated. Each unit has a number of additional optional

activities which provide an opportunity for certain issues to be examined in further depth, should trainers feel that this is desirable. Moreover, whilst we have provided some case study material and simulation exercises, there is a need to supplement these with more directly relevant local materials.

The philosophy underlying the materials is that of learning through an analysis of the problems and practical realities of educational administration. Activity based training sessions and the resulting discussions should help participants in formulating some general principles and developing skills knowledge and attitudes which would enable them to improve their performance at work. We have tended to minimise theoretical inputs, and whilst elements of theory are implicit in the materials, theoretical perspectives are, on the whole, confined to readings which accompany each unit. What we hope to enable through the materials, is that theory, where it might be usefully considered, should derive from the work on the activities. (Further details of the materials are presented as Annex 1).

(c) Evaluation

(i) Strategies adopted

Two strategies have been adopted in evaluating the project materials.

Postal questionnaire: The draft packages of materials have been distributed to our network of participants together with an evaluation guide which draws attention to the sorts of issues which we would like responders to pay particular attention to. In sum, these are questions concerning: the actual usage of materials (how, why, when, problems, etc...); the appropriateness of the materials and the actual strategy adopted; usability and adequacy; quality and practical aspects of use; and an overall assessment of the materials, in relation to local needs. Initial responses have been favourable. However, (a) it is clear that none of those responding have actually used the materials, although indication is given that they will use them; (b) the over-positive comments suggest that the materials may not have been subjected to a very rigorous, detailed and critical scrutiny.

Workshop evaluation: The materials have been used on workshops in Thailand and Sri Lanka (and further evaluation workshops are scheduled for Mauritius, Kenya and Malta). This has provided a valuable opportunity for us to observe the materials in use and make an assessment of their strengths and weaknesses. It has also thrown into focus a major problem area facing the research project. Namely, any assessment of the project's success as a materials development project needs to be undertaken within a much more complex frame of reference than we, perhaps rather naively, originally anticipated. (Of this, more later). These two field tests were somewhat different and as the Thailand exercise was mainly opportunistic (the material was used on a workshop on Course Evaluation to provide the participants with a "live" course on which to practice evaluation techniques), the rest of this section will discuss the evaluation undertaken in Sri Lanka.

The Sri Lankan Workshop was undertaken in collaboration with the Staff College for Educational Administration. The aims were: the evaluation, adaptation and development of project materials by field-testing them in Sri Lanka; the consideration of methodologies for training educational administrators and associated materials needs in the country in order to stimulate the materials development process at the Staff College.

In order to achieve the objectives, the workshop was designed and structured so that the actual field testing of ODA funded project materials was introduced as part of an overall learning experience. This involved an examination of issues surrounding training methods and materials, the preparation and running of mini-courses using the UK project materials which embody a particular training strategy, an identification of problems encountered in using the materials (and inherent methods) and an attempt to apply the lessons learnt in a final materials development phase.

It was not possible to field test all six units making up MEC in the time available, and, as it was felt that each unit "stood alone," we decided to undertake a detailed evaluation of the units making up the second topic, namely Unit 5, "Management and Change an Introduction," and Unit 6, "Resource Management and the Change Process."

Two groups of SCEA trainers were asked to study the units and prepare and run mini-courses based on the materials. The mini-courses would last for one and a half days with two groups of "guinea pig" participants (Grade 1 & 2 secondary school principals). The courses would be evaluated by two further groups of SCEA trainers. Each member of the above teams was provided with a copy of the relevant unit together with a copy of the "Introduction and Overview" (to the materials package). They were given two days for preparation.

A variety of evaluation procedures were used at the Workshop including, observation schedules, questionnaires, interviews and informal discussions with participants (trainers, evaluators, trainees).

(ii) An overview of findings and assessments

It is beyond the scope of this paper to present a detailed account of the findings of the field test, and we will merely summarise a few key points.

There was general agreement that the materials with some adaptation and modification were relevant and valuable for use in the Sri Lankan context, and could be exploited to form the basis of a mini-course or extended for use on a longer course. The topic was felt to be relevant to Sri Lanka given, the current reforms which stress the role of the principal as a change agent, and the need to encourage principals to adopt a more change-oriented approach moving from maintenance tasks to development tasks. The exposure to educational practices and innovations in other countries was welcomed.

The materials were, on the whole, used as presented. Trainers followed the units' structure and sequence of content, and utilised all the activities (with some minor modifications to worksheet questions). Reference was made to local contextual factors and issues at certain points but no attempt was made to introduce any new materials or activities. (This was in marked contrast to the "trial" in Thailand where a range of local materials and activities were introduced.)

Overall, the mini-courses were perceived to be successful, effective and enjoyable. The trainees appeared to like the materials and the approaches inherent in them very much, they were satisfied with the experience and believed that they had learnt something during the one and a half days.

The approach adopted in the materials (learning through an analysis of problems) was felt by the trainers to be very effective, and the strategy of encouraging active learner participation was thought appropriate. However, some of the trainers had difficulty in effectively adopting the approach required by the materials. One group, in fact, reverted to a very expositive approach, starting with a presentation of theory and then engaging participants in activities. They believed that their participants lacked the necessary knowledge to start with problem-solving activities, arguing:

"Trainees are not culturally attuned to looking at themselves and analysing their organisations ... we agree that the best method is to focus on problems and then build the theory from the problem, but we need skills as trainers to do this..."

The last statement is significant. If trainers are familiar with a predominantly expositive training strategy (giving lectures) they may well encounter very grave difficulties when required to adopt a more discovery oriented approach, as was the case with the project materials. Without some training and familiarisation with new methods and materials, it may well be that they are unable to make the necessary adjustment in their method, and that the materials will do more harm than good. The difficulty here is that, in our attempts to evaluate the materials we find ourselves making evaluative statements about the trainers; it may well be that the materials and associated methods are actually unsuitable in certain contexts.

The trainer education element in the materials was thought to be very helpful, providing a valuable model/guide for inexperienced trainers, and helping them to re-assess their strategies and modify them. However, some suggested that the instructions given in the materials are too restrictive/prescriptive; trainers lacking experience may follow instructions too closely without adopting and modifying them to local needs.

(d) Some conclusions--Project Materials and Strategy

(i) The materials

The materials which we have devised are presented as prototypes. We hope that they will serve as basic modules for trainers in third world countries to enable them to arrive at distinctive programmes to meet their special needs in their own contexts. However, we are also increasingly of the view that a key role that the project should by playing, and is apparently already doing, is to stimulate the institutional materials development process. Such processes may or may not be actually based on project prototype materials, but we hope that the ideas and approaches incorporated in the materials will encourage third world trainers to re-assess their own approaches and, where appropriate, consider the adoption and development of more innovative training methods and materials. Thus, the real judgement of the success of our project must not only be the extent to which, in the long term, materials and associated methods are actually adopted and/or adapted, effectively used to meet local needs, and institutionalised, but whether in the final analysis the materials stimulate initiatives of local origin and thereby contribute towards improvements in the quality of training provision.

In sum then, we recognise that in order to evaluate the success of our project and the project materials in the field we cannot easily separate the twofold aims of (i) materials development and evaluation, and (ii) assisting institutions in materials development.

We, therefore, need to adopt a very broad perspective, looking very carefully at the many factors surrounding materials dissemination and utilisation including the close inter-relationship between methods and materials, the problems of implementing innovations, and the conditions which might contribute towards success or otherwise.

We can use this framework in attempting to draw conclusions from the Sri Lankan field trial. We start with the simple statements that:

(a) the packages of materials on "Managing Educational Change" were reasonably successful when used by Sri Lankan trainers as the basis for mini-courses;

(b) recommendations which were made for improvement of the package were quite minor which suggests that modification for use in Sri Lanka is feasible;

(c) the materials did provide a useful model and appeared to stimulate the materials development process at the Staff College.

In order to assess the degree of project success in Sri Lanka, the key questions which then need to be asked are:

(1) Will the materials actually be used in future courses when the motivational factors associated with the experimental field test are absent?

(2) To what extent will the new methods utilised in the mini-courses be internalised by trainers and incorporated into their repertoires?

(3) If some modification is to be undertaken, who should undertake it?

(4) Will the materials development work initiated at the workshop be sustained in the future, and will some sort of on-going institutional materials development process be implemented?

It is not possible to answer these questions adequately without a follow up visit, but, bearing in mind our earlier discussions of implementation of curricular innovations in Part 2, some conjectures can be made.

Materials adoption: It is doubtful whether the materials presented will be used in Sri Lanka, although it is highly likely that certain of the components of the units (readings, selected activities, background notes) will be used by some of the trainers. (Subsequent correspondence suggest that this is the case).

Institutionalization of materials development process: The Staff College has already developed a range of training materials, but the faculty members acknowledge that these are strongly biased towards theory and knowledge, and could usefully be revised with a greater emphasis on practice and action. They were clearly enthusiastic about developing more innovative materials. It is however hard to see how they will find the time to pursue such activities without strong support from management.

If staff colleges such as the one in Sri Lanka are to progress in using a wider range of training methods and developing training materials which require more participatory approaches and elaborate training tactics, there is a clear need for some attention to be given to staff development in these areas. There is little point in spending time and effort in these directions if the staff are unable to adapt or lack the skills to exploit non-lecture based methodology.

Modification/adaptation: It was notable that during the short materials development phase of the workshop, participants chose not to attempt to modify any of the project materials. However, all their initiatives were clearly influenced by the project materials, both with respect to topic area, and, more significantly, to methodology. The latter feature was very encouraging in that it suggests that the aim of stimulating the use of innovative methods and materials was realised. However, the fact that no plans were made or steps taken to actually modify our materials was disappointing. One reason for this may be that there was a strong indication throughout the workshop that we would be modifying the materials for use in Sri Lanka.

(ii) Future strategy

We have included that rather than embarking on any major changes, modification to the project materials should be confined to detail. No amount of adaptation by us will make the package suitable for use in all third world contexts. However, given the demands the materials make on trainers to adopt a possibly unfamiliar approach, it would seem advisable to include additional guidelines and re-inforce the trainer element in the materials.

Our views as to the project's overall success are still largely inconclusive. We need to undertake more follow-up work on implementation and adoption of the MEC package in the field before reaching any final conclusions. Our concern now is less about the materials per se, but about their future dissemination and implementation. However, if we examine our work within the conceptual framework of the implementation of innovations, it is hard not to reach the disheartening conclusion that, in all probability, our project will face the same fate as so many curriculum innovations projects in the past--without support for implementation, the materials will have limited impact.

4. OVERALL CONCLUSIONS

The previous section has presented some of the conclusions that we are beginning to make concerning our materials by highlighting problems associated with the dissemination and implementation strategy. In doing so we drew on some of the ideas presented in Parts 1 & 2 of this paper. We will now attempt some more generalisable conclusions on learning resources for the professional development of educational administrators in the third world.

Any assessment of learning resources for the professional development of educational administrators in the third world must address at least three questions:

1. What are the needs for learning resources in this area?

2. Who best can service this need?

3. What factors might contribute towards success in developing, disseminating and utilising materials?

The first two questions have already been covered to a great extent in previous discussions and we will focus here on the third question. One of the major lessons learnt over the last decades concerning curriculum development projects and the dissemination of curricular materials is that materials developers can not afford to ignore the many factors associated with introduction, implementation, evaluation and adoption of materials. Thus, any attempt to introduce materials which embody a particular teaching/learning strategy must take into account that implementation of the innovatory materials may require some sort of behavioural change of the user.

In considering the development and introduction of new materials, we must look carefully at the conditions which might facilitate implementation and adoption and devise strategies which recognise that materials might need to be adapted, and that support for implementation is essential.

On the basis of our own experiences and those of other materials developers, it would seem that there are a number of important criteria for success. There is nothing very novel in these materials and they parallel the concerns expressed by those who have studied implementation problems in education.

Materials development

- materials for training educational administrators should derive from an assessment of needs preferably undertaken by/with users of the materials.
- materials must derive from an appreciation of the suitability of alternative methods in achieving these needs.
- there should be a match between methods and materials.
- materials should be field tested on the target group.
- there should be provision of on-going staff development in materials production and institutional support for materials development.
- where materials are externally produced attention must be paid to their dissemination and support given for implementation.
- externally produced materials must be carefully appraised to assess their relevance, suitability, appropriateness, adequacy and usability.
- there should be provision of on-going staff development in training methodology.
- there must be support for implementing/using the materials.
- trainers must feel confident in utlising materials, they will need time to get to know/'own' materials and for preparation.
- it must be recognised that materials will be adapted.

Systems implications

- overall, there should be support for and commitment to educational administrator training provision within the Ministry leading to the allocation of adequate resources, to permit staff development and materials developments.

Our main conclusion is that, as materials developers, we must be concerned with dissemination and support for implementation, and that the key problem is training. Throughout our project we have found ourselves coming back to this issue. A starting point must be training the trainers, and this gives rise to a whole series of further questions concerning the appropriateness of alternative methods and techniques in different contexts; a topic which requires considerably further research.

Another important observation is that while politicians and officials may pay lip-service to the need for training administrators many training institutes are starved of resources. Unless the job is done properly, with adequate facilities, the national sums that are actually allocated are, in fact, wasted because training programmes are bound to be ineffective.

ANNEX I: THE MATERIALS--"MANAGING EDUCATIONAL CHANGE"

(a) Summary of the materials

The materials are for use on courses for practising school head teachers, although with modification they could be used on courses for middle-level administrators. The theme "Managing Educational Change" is covered through a series of six units grouped under two topic headings.

TOPIC A: Key Issues in Educational Innovation

The topic is covered through four units:

1. An Introduction to Educational Innovation and the Innovation Process

2. The Problem of Implementation

3. Strategies of Implementation

4. Theoretical Perspectives and Research into Educational Innovation

The overall aim of units making up the topic are: to examine key issues in educational innovation with particular attention to the nature of innovations and the innovation process, the problems of implementing innovations and the strategies of implementation; to relate the consideration of these issues to the practical experience of participants in managing change; and to assess the contribution of the theoretical and research literature towards improving our understanding of these key issues.

TOPIC B: Managing Change in Schools

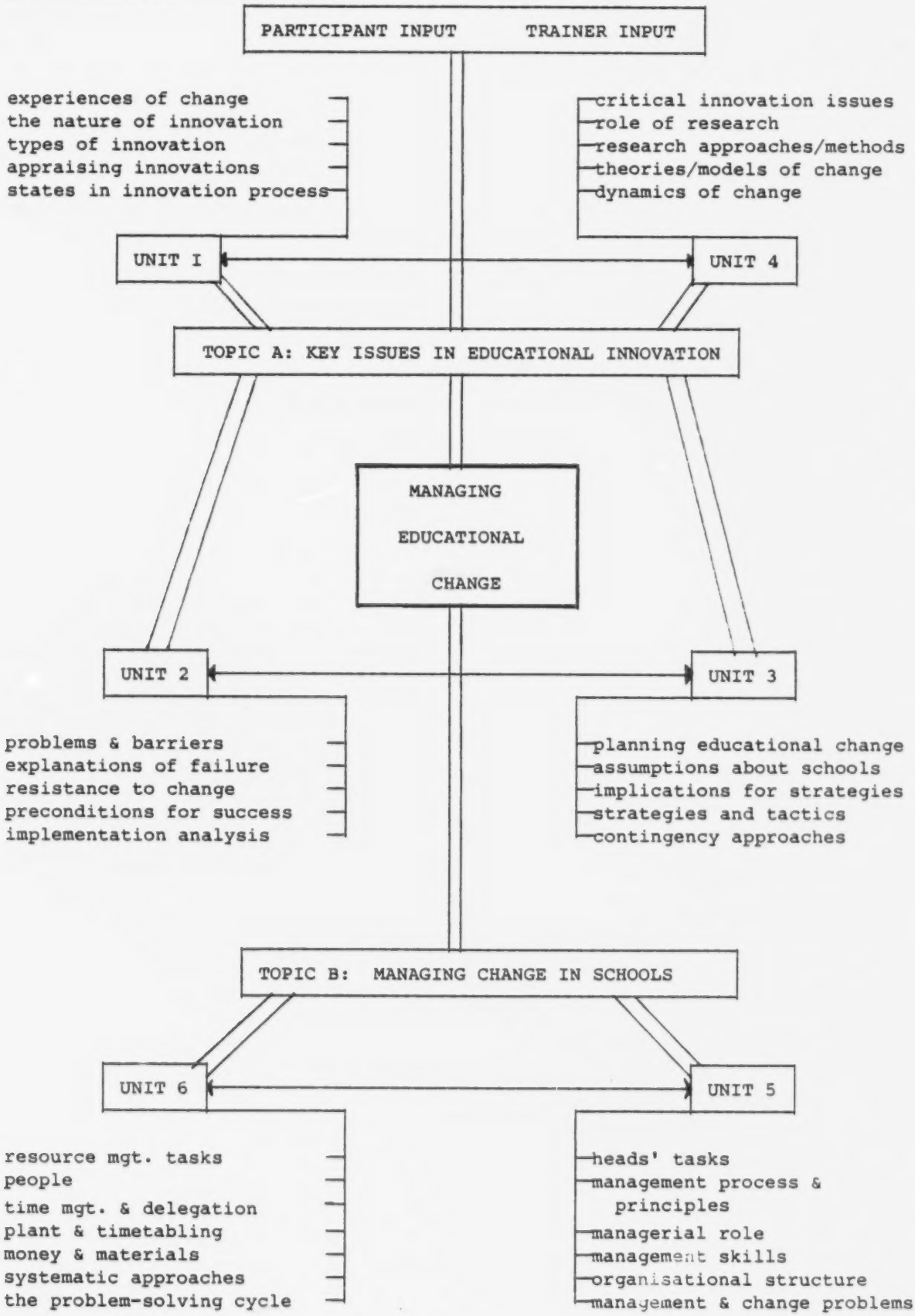
The topic is covered through two units:

5. Management and Change--an Introduction

6. Resource Management and the Change Process

The overall aim of the units making up this topic are: to consider school management tasks, processes and organisational structures and the implications of the introduction of change for the role of the school head; and, focussing on one critical management task, to examine the management of resources with a view to identifying key considerations for the successful introduction and implementation of change in schools.

Thematic, topic, unit linkages



(b) Format of Materials

The units making up "Managing Educational Change" are designed in such a way as to provide a series of activities to form the basis of a complete one to two day "learning experience".

Each unit consists of a number of components, the core being a series of worksheets for trainers and participants corresponding to the activities which make up the unit.

Trainers' Worksheets provide information for the person running the activity by briefly outlining the aim of the activity and suggesting procedures and discussion points. These are sometimes supported by Additional Notes providing further background information for the trainer.

The Worksheets for participants describe the activity to be undertaken and provide space for the various responses required (in some instances participants may find it necessary to supplement the worksheet with additional pages). Worksheet Materials are provided to complement some activities.

The Trainers' Worksheet and the participants' Worksheets are given numbers to indicate the unit and activity number. For example, Trainers' Worksheet 1.1 is for use on the first activity of Unit 1.

Optional Activities are presented in the same format with Trainers' Worksheet Options and Worksheet Options for participants (in some instances the latter are not always provided).

A Reading File is associated with each unit. The extracts (readings) are numbered sequentially within each file.

A Trainers' Unit Guide and Trainers' Unit Schedule provide an overview of the unit and its aims and an approximate time schedule.

A Workcard summarises the objectives of the unit and its activities.

REFERENCES

[1]Examples include: Nadler, L. (ed.), The Handbook of Human Resource Development, (New York: John Wiley, 1984), Taylor, B. and Lippitt, G., Management Education and Training Handbook, (McGraw Hill, 1975), Watson, C.E., Management Development Through Training, (Reading, Mass., USA: Addison-Wesley, 1982).

[2]Project Ask, (1981) Development of Administrative Skills and Knowledge: Summary Reports of Project Ask ... Phase I (1980); Phase 2 (1981). (University of Alberta, Canada: Department of Educational Administration).

[3]Wynn, R., Unconventional Methods and Materials for Preparing Educational Administrators, (Columbus, Ohio: UCEA, 1972).

[4]Silver, P.F. (ed.), Preparatory Programs for Educational Administrators in the United States, (Columbus, Ohio: UCEA, 1978).

[5]Unesco, Roeap, Supporting Innovations in Education: Preparing Administrators, Supervisors and Other Key Personnel, Report of a Technical Working Group Meeting, 29 Sept. - 11 Oct., (Bangkok: Unesco, 1981).

[6]Unesco, Roeap, Training Education Personnel in Planning and Management Using Distance Teaching and Other Techniques, Report on an Evaluation Workshop, (Bangkok: Unesco, 1983).

[7]Wynn, R. op. cit.

[8]See for example: Kold D. et al, Organizational Psychology--an experiential approach, (London: Prentice Hall, 1979).

[9]See for example: Knowles, M., The Adult Learner: A Neglected Species, (Houston, Texas: Gulf Publishing Co., 1973).

[10]For example, two papers presented in 1983: Marshall, D. "Critical Decisions in the Professional Preparation and Development of School Administrators in Developing Areas", a discussion paper prepared for the CASEA section of the Canadian Society for the Study of Education. Lungu, G.F. "Some Critical Issues in the Training of Educational Administrators for Developing Countries of Africa" International Journal of Educational Development, 3, (1), pp. 85-96.

[11]The most notable example is by Casse, P., Training for the Cross-Cultural Mind, (Washington, DC: The Society for International Education, Training and Research, 1981).

[12]Thiagarajan, K.M. and Prahalad, C.K., Some Problems in the Behavioural Science Education of Managers and Management Instructors in Developing Nations, (Rochester University, New York: Management Research Center, 1969).

[13]Kindervatter, S., "Learner-Centered Training for Learner-Centered Programmes," Training Notes Series No. 1, (University of Massachusetts: Centre for International Education, 1983).

[14]Wynn, R. op. cit.

[15]Schmuck, R.A., Education of School Leaders in Sweden: Assessment and Recommendations, Unpublished paper, (University of Oregon, USA: 1982).

[16]Burgoyne, J.G., "A Classified Bibliography of Some Research on Teaching Methods in Management Education, and some Inferences About the State of the Art," Paper, Management Teacher Development Unit, (University of Lancaster, UK.: 1976).

[17]Joyce, B. and Showers, B., "Improving Inservice Training: the Messages of Research," Educational Leadership, (February, 1980), pp. 379-384.

[18]These models highlight the relationship between various training methods and dimensions. Examples, together with their particular focusses, are: ILO, An Introductory Course in Teaching and Training Methods for Management Development, (International Labour Office, Geneva: 1982, [principles of learning, eg. motivation, feedback]).
Pfeiffer, J.N. and Jones, J.F., "An Introduction to Structured Experiences," in Pfeiffer and Jones, Annual Handbook for Group Facilitators, (La Jolla, California: University Associates, 1977, 1980, [degree of involvement, risk, interaction]).
Hawrylyshyn, B., "Management Education--A Conceptual Framework," in Management Education and Training Handbook, Taylor, B. and Lippitt, G., op. cit. (various management skills) (1975).
McLeary, L. and McIntyre, K., "Competency Development and Methodologies of College Teaching," in Principal In-Service: Where will They Find It", NASSP, (Reston, Va.: 1974, [levels of learning/skills]).
There are also more complex three dimension models such as that presented by Pareek, U. and Rao, T.V., Handbook for Trainers in Educational Management: with special reference to countries in Asia and the Pacific, (Roeap, Bangkok: Unesco, 1981, [amount of: learner activity, cognitive emphasis and opportunity for experimentation]).

[19]Commonwealth Secretariat, The Commonwealth Casebook for School Administrators, (London: C.S., 1981).

[20]Huges, M.G., Leadership in the Management of Education: A Handbook for Educational Supervisors, (London: Commonwealth Secretariat, 1981).

[21]This materials development project is on-going. An outline of the project plans and procedures is given in: Unesco, EPP (1980), Workshop on the "Co-ordination of Training Activities (Training Materials) in the Field of Educational Planning, Administration and Facilities," (Paris: Division of Educational Policy and Planning, Unesco).

[22]There have been a number of reports on these materials. For example: Unesco, Roeap (1980), Development and Testing of National Training Materials in Educational Planning and Management, (Bangkok: Report of a Consultative Meeting, Unesco).

[23]Renon, A.G., "The Functions of Education Administrators and the Training of Education Administrators." Unesco EPP Report Studies TM/D2/2.1, (Paris: Unesco).

[24]Virmani, K.G., "Training for Educational Managers in India: a Case for Experiential Learning Methods," EPA Bulletin, 3,2, (1980), pp. 38-52.

[25]A useful review of the literature on educational innovation is given by Hurst, P., "Implementing Educational Change: A Critical Review of the Literature," EDC Occasional Paper No. 5., (London: University of London Institute of Education, 1983).

[26]Noteable works are: Crandall, D.P. and Associates, (1983), People, Policies and Practices: Examining the Chain of School Improvement, (Mass., USA: The Network Inc., 1983); The Meaning of Educational Change, (Ontario: OISE Press, 1982); Herriott, R.E. & Gross, N. (eds.), The Dynamics of Educational Change, (Berkeley, California: McCutchan, 1974); Huberman, A.M. & Miles, M.B., Innovation Up Close: How School Improvement Works, (New York: Plenum Press, 1984).

[27]Macdonald, B. & Ruddock, J., "Curriculum Research and Development Projects: Barriers to Success," British Journal of Educational Psychology, 41, Part 2, (June, 1971).

[28]Useful analyses and discussion of curriculum development projects in the UK are given by: Eggleston, S.J., The Sociology of the School Curriculum, (London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1977); and Shipman, M.A. et al., Inside a Curriculum Project, (London: Methuen, 1977).

[29]The major study is that undertaken by Havelock, R.G. & Huberman, A.M. (1977) Solving Educational Problems: The Theory and Reality of Innovation in Developing Countries, (Paris: IBE, Unesco, 1977).

[30]Fullan, M. op. cit.

WOMEN IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE THIRD WORLD

--THE INDIAN CASE

by

Usha Nayar
National Institute of Education Planning and Administration
17-B, Sri Aurobindo Marg., New Delhi--110016
India

Women in educational administration and other professional leadership roles are noticeable by their scarcity both in the third world and in the industrialized countries. In the former, their low participation is often resultant from the underdevelopment of women's education and hence low availability. In the latter, despite full education and high availability, very few women are to be found in educational and other leadership positions. In fact, in many third world societies the incidence of female "seclusion" has thrown up more women educational administrators considering the low proportion of women who receive higher education in these societies.

Administration started as an all male affair into which women made (often unwelcome) incursions. The low presence of women in administration is explained by the continued belief in male superiority and female ineptitude in handling extra domestic leadership roles--a position which stands sufficiently challenged. The lot of the western woman was harder as she graduated into educational and other leadership as an equal contender with men and faced a combined male opposition, which had a vested interest in the "exclusion" of women from structures of power and influence. The rise and fall of the women's movement and the new wave of feminism coincide with the early rise and decline and again the resurgence of women in educational leadership in the US. There is questioning of male leadership in a predominantly female profession and efforts are afoot to generate information and awareness among women and about women besides identification of constraints and strategies for the professional preparation and development of women in educational administration. The third world women stand to gain from the struggle of their western counterparts who strove for formal equality and later affirmative action for translating the same into defacto equality. The third world women are, further, aided by the granting of constitutional and legal guarantees on equality between sexes in their countries, often accompanied by policies of protective/positive discrimination. However, the ubiquitous patriarchal social mould that extends beyond the institution of family, even at its liberal best offers or surrenders only partial equality to women, regardless of the ideological contexts. In recent times, women's participation in extra-domestic structures has often come from reasons of "social exigency", and women were expected to return to the hearth once the crisis was over, the world over. The third world patriarchy, orthodoxy and social customs are even more constrictive for the development of women. In the absence of any strong women's movement, it is a moot question whether purely legal and statutory equality and even positive discrimination policies will carry women far unless they learn to help each other and themselves. Professional women need to organise themselves both for their own professional growth and for providing leadership and direction to other women.

Against this broad canvas, the case of women in educational administration in India could be examined with a view to identifying constraints and facilitating structures and strategies for their professional preparation and development. In the absence of any data on women in educational administration anywhere, major reliance is placed on theoretical perspectives available from a growing body of research on them. This is being done to assess the validity of their application to a third world country, considering women face similar problems in a male dominated world in all contexts regardless of differences of ideology or of developmental levels. The difference is perhaps of degree not kind.

Table 1: World Labour Force by Sex and by Sector

		Agriculture		Industry		Service	
		1970	1980	1970	1980	1970	1980
Developing Countries							
	F	73.6	66.3	12.5	16.3	13.9	17.4
	M	62.8	55.7	17.7	21.6	19.5	22.7
Industrialized Market Economies	F	11.4	7.7	25.4	25.8	63.2	66.5
	M	12.0	8.5	44.6	45.9	43.4	45.6
Industrialized Centrally Planned Economies	F	31.7	21.5	29.6	33.1	38.6	45.4
	M	27.7	19.4	44.2	50.3	28.1	30.3
TOTAL	F	54.3	47.8	17.9	20.8	27.8	31.4
	M	49.2	43.5	25.7	28.8	25.1	27.7

Source: ILO Bureau of Statistics, World Labour Report, 2, Geneva, 1985. P. 205

The Gender Based Division of Labour

The participation of women in educational administration and other professional and managerial cadres reflects their standing in the labour force at large. Looking at the composition of the female work force of the world as a whole, we notice the shift from agriculture to non-agricultural occupations among women. In the third world, two-thirds of women workers are employed in agriculture (mostly of subsistence variety), whereas in the industrialized market economies a similar proportion of women is to be found in the service sector. The industrialized centrally-planned economies have the highest proportion of women in industrial occupations compared to the rest of the world, and 46% of their female force are in services.

An ILO Report (1983) notices a steady increase in the number of female employees in services unaccompanied by satisfactory progress in their representation at the middle or higher levels, the bulk of them abound in lower grade jobs in education, health and social services.[1] There is both a horizontal and vertical division of labour between sexes. The greater increase of women in services in industrial market economies and the no change situation in their participation in the more powerful industrial sector is an example of unequal division of labour between sexes horizontally. Women tend to enter spheres of declining importance to men, also the fields which become predominantly female tend to diminish in status and prestige. Further, within all occupations women are

[1]In Norway in 1977, there was only one woman among those holding 104 high ranking posts, although they formed 20% of the middle managers. In Belgium in 1980, women formed 3.5% of senior level; 32.1% at level 2, 40.9% at level 3 and 23.3% at level 4 in various ministries. In US, women account for half of civil servants but only 6.2% are in upper grade posts (GS 14-18), women hold 7 out of 462 top posts and only 140 of the 1027 heads of external services were women. In FRG in 1977, only 423 of 6454 higher grades in the government were held by women to include one director, one secretary, one ambassador. In Australia in 1981, women accounted for 42% in Fourth, 22% in Third, 10% in Second and none in First Division posts. In Canada (1980), women formed 35.6% in services but only 4% of managers. In 1981, in USSR women accounted for 82% of health, 74% of education and 73% of culture personnel, but only a few surfaced in top administrative cadres.

huddled at the lower rungs while men perform the supervisory or leadership roles.[1] Whether the majority of women are in subsistence agriculture as in the Third World or they form the bulk of the service worker as in the First World, their low status image comes out vividly. The picture of second world women is not too different considering their high labour force participation rates (50-60%). Public services apart, women are few and far between in management at the top.

Women in educational administration and the role of feminism

The case of the US represents the organized response of women to sex inequality as a form of social inequality. The under-representation of women in all top jobs is to be noticed in that country, but in education they make the ground force. Two-thirds of teachers are women and 86% of all principals are male. Men comprise only 16% of the elementary school teachers and hold 80% of the principalships at that stage. At the secondary level, half the teachers are female but men hold 97% junior high school principalships and 99% of the senior high school principalships.[2] The picture grows worse at higher levels. Women form 0.6% of the 1400 superintendents of school systems. The superintendent is typically an Anglo-Saxon, white, protestant, once-married male. Women at all levels earn lower salaries than men and are much less represented at state and national levels. Decision-making at the state and federal level is a male activity--considered terribly undemocratic taking into account the sex composition of the student body, teachers and administrators in the system. In fact, there has been a noticeable decline in proposition of women administrators in the last 50 years (Biklen and Brannigan, 1980:9). Considering that the entry requirements into educational administration are classroom teaching experience and some courses, easily acquired, one cannot look to shortages in the supply of potential administrators because of credential obstacles to explain why few women move up the traditional career ladder. (The relatively lower supply for other top administrative and other professional cadres is easily understood on account of very intensive graduate work programmes and higher qualification requirements.)

---

[1] In 1980, women formed 42% of the total workforce in UK. Over 60% of these women worked in three service industries viz., clerical and related; education, health and welfare; and catering, cleaning and personal services and again at the bottom levels of these services. Women form 75% of all clerical management. There is a marked increase, however, in the numbers and percentages of women in university management courses. Number of women entering industrial employment and finance and accounting, marketing, selling and buying have gone up. These are seen as optimistic trends for vertical mobility of women. See for details, Cooper & Davidson, 1984.

[2] In 1974 in UK among full time teachers women formed 77% of the primary teachers and only 43% of the head teachers at that level. At the secondary level women formed 44% of all teaching and only 19% of head teachers. See Deem, 1978.

There is a surge of interest about the decline of women educational administrators in the last 50 years (McClure and McClure, 1974; Clement, 1975; Howard, 1975; Paddock, 1977; Schmuck, 1980; Gribskov, 1980). The assessment is that "the rise and the fall of the women school administrators approximates the peaks and valleys of the first American feminist movement of the late 1800s and early 1900s, and ... that the feminist movement was a crucial factor in producing the large numbers of women administrators of that period. When feminism declined, beginning about 1920 and continuing to slide down until the 1960s, so did the number of women who sought and gained management positions in education. With the resurgence of feminism in the last decade, women are again becoming more numerous in educational 'administration' (Gribskov, 1980)."[1]

In 1920, 47% of all students in higher education were women. The number of women doctors was higher in Boston during 1890 than in 1950, the recent increase in female medical students parallels the rebirth of feminism. In 1928, women accounted for 55% of elementary teachers; 1/4 of all county superintendents in the US.; 62% of county superintendents in 11 Western States; 45 of 2853 superintendents of city school systems; 55 among 585 heads of departments of education, 16% of state school officers. In 1972-73, only 19% of elementary school principals, 5% chief state school officers and less than 1% of superintendents were female. Similar low proportions were visible in all other areas of educational administration. The great depression hit women the most. Women had brief opportunity in educational administration during the two world wars because of absence of men. The post-war 'feminine mystique' and the baby boom crippled the feminist movement and two generations of women professionals were lost (Gribskov, 1980: 77-91).[2] The rebirth of a feminist ideology "has proved a spark for women educators to investigate their position within our schools and has added fuel to the fire of change." The consciousness raising groups, the word sexist, active coalitions of professional women, female students blazing new pathways, girl athletes, women's trade unions and federal funds directed at achieving education equity among sexes all form an important backdrop for changing women's role in education (Schmuck, 1980: 239-260).

---

[1]Gribskov substantiates this thesis on the basis of the study of the history of women in educational administration in eleven Western States of the U.S.A.

[2]The crisis labour theory points to the use society puts its women to in times of need and asks them to go back to the kitchen once the requirement is over. German women faced this. Decimation of males during great wars brought out a large number of women into productive labour in Eastern Europe. Women entered manual work, technical work and white collar work in large numbers. Now thinking is afloat as to how to stop certain occupations like education and health from being totally feminized.

Researchers are making significant contribution by analysing the sex bias in school leadership; careers of women educational administrators, their performance, their movitations and aspirations; and changing women's representation in school management through leadership training conceptualization and action projects. Estlar (1975) posits three world views or models to analyse the low participation of women in educational administration viz., (i) The woman's place model, where different socialization patterns for boys and girls are reinforced through institutional practices and provide appropriate training for the adult world of work which has jobs for men and jobs for women; (ii) The discrimination model which suggests that the preferential hiring and promotional policies explain the sexist imbalance in educational administration; (iii) The meritocracy model where people are promoted according to their ability. Studies on men and women principals conclude that women perform as well as men on every performance measure and better on some.[1] Estlar's data did not support this model as offering the explanation for low female participation. Clement (1975) found the woman's place model and the discrimination model were most useful in providing a framework for discussing the barriers to women's access to and progress in educational administration. She analysed that the early training of men through games and interaction with peers in highly task oriented situations gets them ready for upward mobility. Women face absence of influential networks, peer visibility, lack of good training by mentors. For competent women, the bias at the entrance is not, so much, but their career orientation is the real impediment. This stems from their early training for the legitimate female adult role which permits marriage or work for women not so for men. Further, women receive person centred feedback--more on their personality and not on their task performances. Prejudicial hiring practices are again seated in men's socialization about women and would require a great deal of training, acculturation and acclimatization for men so that they could become aware of their biases. Clement arrived at the conclusion that at entry point the woman's place model explained the initial barriers to access, but movements towards the top could be better analysed through the discrimination model. Women, she felt, tend to think of careers in terms of comfort and satisfaction. The job description for top administrative posts is--very isolated, hard work, long hours, much responsibility, continued visibility, criticism, uncertainty, risk-taking, that many women see as very unpleasant. Men have a wife to support as they are moving up the ladder, women unless childless or single cannot have a comparable life style of "family firemen." As long as the society in which we live defines the status of women, regardless of their occupation, in terms of their roles as wife and mother this will be the case. The society is also composed of men who are bosses, potential mentors and members of school committees. That their vision of women as predominantly that of wife and mother acts as a constraint on access of women to top management positions and, also, makes life even more difficult for those few women who manage to achieve. Administration is not a friendly place and women lack the close personal relationships that men often get from their jobs. Being few, women do not find

[1]Also, see for instance, Paddock, 1977; Norman, 1970; Fishel & Pottker, 1975; Gross and Trask, 1976; Morsink, 1970; Taylor, 1963.

support from each other, and power in organisations finally rests with men, and hence most women find traditional female behaviour more rewarding. Tokenism--and its counterpart superstar--asks too much of them as persons and it either dooms them to failure or forces them to project negative images of their roles (Clement, 1975).

Another significant contribution of feminist scholars is the launching of action projects for leadership training for increased effectiveness among women educational administrators, to which we shall return later. Also, I do not want to forget the role of State intervention in equalization of educational and employment opportunities for women through affirmative action or positive discrimination. Women's movements did a considerable job by raising relevant issues which drew state and public attention.

Affirmative Action/Positive Discrimination

The governments of some countries have been able to increase the number of women employed in public services on account of their ability to take direct action in these fields. Proportions of women in newly recruited staff have doubled or even trebled in certain cases. At the same time the authorities have concentrated on identifying and eliminating obstacles hindering women's access to public service jobs.

Canada has been able to replace discriminatory procedures with measures conducive to the employment of women due to its affirmative action strategy. Women's participation has increased to 26.3% in 1980. The regulations and guidelines of the US. Federal Equal Opportunity Recruitment Programme established under the 1978 Civil Service Reform Act requires the administration to pursue a continuous recruitment policy to eliminate the under-representation of women and minorities. Norway and Sweden have laid down quotas for jobs for women under their positive discrimination programmes. France, U.K. and FRG, however, while supporting equality do not favour positive discrimination as they feel it goes against the tenet of equality, per se.

According to a directive of the Philippines government (5 January, 1980), women must be integrated into national development. All ministries, agencies, local governments and public undertakings are expected to take positive steps to promote equality of opportunity and treatment in employment. Qualified women are to have access to planning and decision-making posts at the local, national and international levels. Bangladesh has made provision for 10% reservation of jobs for women in public services and an additional 10% posts in the public services are reserved for women affected by the liberation war.

In India, positive discrimination is made to promote the educational chances of women by provision of incentives for them, but no quotas are assigned in public services recruitment. Reservations in public services exist for two historically disadvantaged groups, viz. the scheduled castes and the scheduled tribes to the extent of their share in the population ie. 15% and 7% respectively. Even within these groups, as no reservations are made for women, the benefit of protective discrimination goes to men only, as women of these classes are unable to even reach the required levels of education and training. Within educational administration the same criterion apply, and men of these sections are increasingly utilizing this reservation. Women of these groups are outside the fold of education/higher education and thus get left out.

The Rise of Women Educational Administrators in India

The rise of women educational administrators in India, as in many other third world societies practising female seclusion, is owed to the expansion of women's education in separate institutions headed by women. Corresponding to the prevalent social norm of taboo on mixing with non-family males (especially among upper caste, upper class women who took to modern education), female inspectorates were created within the departments of public instruction for inspecting the work of girls' schools. This practise continues in some states even now, other states have amalgamated the male and female cadres at the supra school levels.

It would, however, be erroneous to project that sex segregation was prevalent thoughout India. It is true that in undivided India, the entire Northern parts which came under Muslim influence, orthodox Hinduism and foreign invasions, sex segregation became a rule. The north-eastern tribal belt outside the Hindu-caste fold, often with matrilineal, matrilocal cultures, did not witness this phenomenon. Even in the Southern states, female seculsion was not practised very strictly. In fact, in coastal Malabar now Kerala, again matrilineal/matrilocal social structure, early influence of Christianity, an enlightened princely ruler and a socialist government later gave a fillip to education in general and particularly of women. The results are all too obvious as Kerala is an outstanding example of female participation in education (as students, as teachers and as administrators) and has higher status of women. The birth rates are low, age at marriage is high, female mortality and infant mortality are low. Participation of women in white collar work is high.

It would be interesting to note that female enrollments are the lowest in a majority of the northern states and certain tribal and Muslim belts in Central and South India. The nine educationally backward states (having 75% of non-enrolled primary age group children, bulk of whom are girls) receiving special attention just now are Jammu & Kashmir, Uttar Pradesh, Rajasthan, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Orissa, Assam, West Bengal and Andhra Pradesh. These states are also the underdeveloped parts of India, economically speaking. Female literacy and enrollments are the poorest in Uttar Pradesh, Bajasthan, Madhya Pradesh and Bihar (these four states put together account for a third of the country's population and bulk of the illiterates). While most other states have either already merged the male and female cadres or are in the process of doing so, these States continue to have separate inspectorates. It needs to be pointed out that while a case still exists for providing female teachers to attract more girls to schools in certain areas, separate inspecting cadres are long redundant as sex segregation among the educated sections has broken down to a great extent. (Interestingly, Pakistan and Bangladesh have continued to have segregated inspectorates but their female enrollments have not picked up either and women's education continues to be a major challenge.)

In fact, separate inspecting cadres do not help even women, as the number of posts in female cadres are far fewer than the takers (ie. the number of women teachers and principals). Wherever the cadres have been merged, the common seniority has helped many more women to come up at all levels of educational administration. Women directors of education, additional directors, joint directors, deputy directors and district education officers are a small but a highly visible minority. These serve the purpose of the Director of Education or Director of Public Instruction and are mostly held by general civil service cadres (Indian Administrative Services). Women from I.A.S. have headed departments of education and the secretariats in the States. Only, last year the Ministry of Education was headed by a woman, the Education Secretary and Joint Secretary and Deputy Secretary at the Centre were women. The University Grants Commission was headed by a woman who was an ex-vice-chancellor and a district education officer.

It also needs to be kept in mind that, although provision for direct recruitment in educational administration exists in many states, merit-cum-seniority is the norm for promotions. The pool from which women administrators at higher levels are drawn is made from among the women principals of girls' schools. Despite the impression that India is a highly sex segregated society, it would be of interest to note that less than 8% of all educational institutions were for girls alone in 1950-51, and three decades later the proportion of single-sex female-headed schools for girls remains the same. The female enrollments have grown from 6.5 million to nearly 40 million, during the same period, registering more than a six-fold increase. The absolute figures of women headed institutions (including 500 degree colleges) have risen to around 50,000 compared to 17.4 thousand in 1950-51 (a three-fold increase).

The proportion of women in educational administration gets reduced in separate female cadres. The fact remains that separate girls' schools continue to be headed by women only in all states, and the co-educational and boys' schools are headed by men only. Haryana and Chandigarh provide examples where women have headed not only boys' secondary schools but also some troubled boys' degree colleges. Kerala has a 60:40 proportion among men and women district education officers, the recruitment is both direct and by promotion. In Delhi, women form around 50% of the educational administrators, more than half the teachers at the school stage and more than 40% of students at all levels of education.

In West Bengal, the Deputy Director of School Education (Administration) is a woman, and around half of the district education officers and inspecting officers are female. "There are highly qualified women--married to professinal men--who are unwilling to move out of the place of their residence even for promotion. The government is now preparing district wide panels to get the best candidates, especially women, who are very capable but unable to move very long distances. There are more over-qualified women than men." In Maharashtra, among Class I of the State Education Service, 10 out of 125 posts are held by women.

The case of Rajasthan and Uttar Pradesh further substantiate that women's cadres in educational administration are "separate and unequal." Rajasthan has the lowest female literacy rates and female enrollments. There are districts in Rajasthan with female literacy levels below 3% and poor female enrollments. Women are not allowed to move out of the houses for any social intercourse and the climatic conditions are so harsh that survival itself is threatened. Of course, women walk miles to fetch a pot of water. There is a separate cadre of women below the Director of Education's level right up to headships of secondary schools. However, of the 27 districts only three have women district education officers who are located in the Deputy Director's office. The recruitment is both through direct entry and by promotion. Each district has not more than one higher secondary/secondary school and in Jaisalmer for instance, there are hardly one or two girls each in the six middle and eight primary schools for girls. "Women administrators have no role here. Girls do not come to schools." (A District Education Officer from Rajasthan).

In Uttar Pradesh, there is a parallel set of women education officers below the Director of Education right up to school headship, as in Rajasthan. Primary education is co-educational. Twenty percent of the middle schools and seventeen percent of the secondary are special girls' schools headed by women. There are high schools for boys in all developmental blocks (lowest administrative unit), but for girls even at the tehsil level (8-9 blocks) there are few high schools. The female directorate has only 15 Class I posts whereas there are 149 Class I posts held by males. The proportion apart, their powers in the same rank are different. For example the regional inspectresses (12 in all) are equivalent to men Deputy Directors in rank but their pay scale is lower and power less. If there is a dispute between a woman principal and the management, the matter has to be referred to a Deputy Director male in the region. The district level primary education officers (Basic Shiksha Adhikari) have male and female counterparts. The BSA (male) oversees both male and female inspecting cadres below him. The woman BSA and Deputy Inspectors of girls schools have only inspection powers. The male Deputy Inspector draws and disburses salaries for both male and female subordinates. In sum, men handle all the administrative powers even at ranks parallel to women. There is only one woman district inspectress of schools out of a total of 56 such Class I officers and she does not belong to the women's cadre but is a direct entry through provincial civil services examination. She is bright and diligent and is disowned by the women's cadre.

The Profile

Research on women educational administrators as a social category is a relatively uncharted area in the third world. There is a growing body of social evidence on professional women, their status, their role conflicts, their commitment and aspirations. Studies of educated working women have so far been aggregative, clubbing high status professionals like doctors, scientists, academics, executives, administrators with women in semi-professions like school teaching and nursing and other white collar workers such as clerks, steno-typists and telephone operators. The differing social class origins and accordingly differing family role structures, together with differing occupational role structures and the corresponding demands on these women indicates the need for a differentiated treatment of each occupational category individually and in comparison to one another.[1] An attempt will be made to build a profile of the Indian woman educational administrator based on the few available studies employing intensive field work techniques leading to case studies (Nayar 1974, 1983, 1985). (i) Social Origins: Typically, the Indian woman educational administrator is an urban, upper caste, middle class, first-generation working woman with an educated father, a professional husband and brothers and sisters who are educated and professional too. Education of women in India, as in many third world ex-colonies, started as an auxiliary development of the modern education of men in response to the new structures of status and occupations for men in colonial bureaucracies and the consequent demand for compatible educated wives and mothers of future generations. Attitudes of educated middle class males were positive to the development of women's education, some of these men led the social reform movements and the Indian renaissance in the 19th Century. The "social exigency" here was raising the quality of Indian family life by educating women, who could be allowed to be taught only by women in female headed institutions. This gave rise to the birth of a large number of first time administrators of education, our woman principals, who also form the catchment pool from which area officers of educational administration were chosen. Women did not enter as contenders to males but in separate female cadres, again propitiating patriarchal dominance and control over the lives of women, so long as women remain in separate cadres they do not face much discrimination vis-a-vis male counterparts. The trouble starts when these cadres are merged and the female minority contends for positions ordinarily and earlier occupied by men in educational administration. It would be easier to understand the social dynamics of educational administration if we point out that the average male educational administrators are often lower middle class, upwardly mobile, first-generation educated rural males with modest academic ability (as education is a very low priority occupation for men). ii) Status mobility: The addition of an occupational role to their existing family centred role structure has important economic and social status dimension for themselves and for the Indian family. Besides occupational mobility, these women represent, on upward shift in the status of women, both individually and as an historically disadvantaged group. They also represent a movement away from traditional to egalitarian sex role perceptions.

---

[1] See, for instance, a few entries in the bibliography.

Their age at marriage is much higher and the family size is small by national norms. They have an equal share in family decision-making concerning family budget, savings and investments and children's education and career. They have full personal autonomy in terms of professional work and have the freedom to select and meet friends and colleagues. They do not report any external restrictions. "I am free to go out to parties and movies alone, but I don't like to do so." The family division of labour stays skewed. All the hard jobs are done by paid female help, ordinarily. Husbands chip in on extra-house errands like marketing and, at times, helping children with their "home work." However, interviews show that in the absence of paid help, husbands do help.

These women see their own occupation as an important element of their role structure and a source of an independent identity. Few see father or husband as the sole determinant of a woman's status. Respondents report a significant improvement in their status as women compared to women of earlier generations and state their high occupational position raises their status vis-a-vis their families and friends.

There is noticeable movement from traditional to the egalitarian end of the continuum in the sex role perceptions of women. They see themselves in equal terms to men in extra domestic spheres of education and employment; see work as a right for women, express confidence in their ability to perform as well as men and feel most occupations can be handled by women with equal ease. For some like education, health, etc., they feel women are more suited. They, however, see relatively more diverse occupational roles for their daughters. Within the family they see an equal status in decision-making, personal autonomy and division of labour (should a case arise) but in the core mother-wife roles hold to the primacy of the interests of children and husband, in that order. Age is an important variable in sex-role ideology of women educational administrators and there are regional variations too. Younger women are more egalitarian and confident in their outlook, comparatively speaking. Delhi, Haryana, Puhjab show more egalitarian trends and so do women administrators from West Bengal, Manarashtra and Kerala, for instance. Fairly highly placed women administrators from Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh and Rajasthan give more traditional responses among other respondents. iii) Occupational role commitment: The respondents have continuous careers and have continued to work after marriage and the arrival of children. They have no intention of changing their occupation and give education/administration as their first career preference. They have not refused promotions but may have resisted transfers. The majority started working to use their education for gaining independent careers, income and status and were not driven by economic necessity. While they see a broad role for professional organisations, they do not participate in these. In fact, professional organisation of educational administrators is a very recent phenomenon and has not touched even a minority of males as yet, let alone women. The respondents give democratic responses to issues of educational decision-making by and large.

iv) Role Conflict: These dual career women report low conflict between the occupational and the familial roles. As several studies report, child care is a major source of conflict for most working women. These women become administrators at a fairly advanced stage of their family life and have put behind the problem of raising small children (surrogate care is both accepted and available in the forms of cheap female domestic helps and other non-working senior family women). Their present resource level is substantial to employ others for household drudgery. Their satisfactions from their occupational status in terms of prestige, privileges, and social standing further make it easier for them to ignore the "double burden" as a minor irritation. However, the situation is likely to change when separate cadres get abolished and when these women will have to expend more time on professional preparation and development to stay on and make progress in educational administration. The women administrator who is higher placed than her husband faces role conflict in the family situation. v) Role Performance: Women educational administrators appear to handle their professional responsibilities with equal ease compared to their male counterparts. The women's institutions, on an average, appear to be better organized and neater on account of their eye for detail. Women heads of institutions are seen as effective leaders, some are democratic others in the mould of matriarchs (the proverbial mother-in-law syndrome). Their type of leadership needs to be further explored.

In a study of the heads of secondary schools in Haryana and Indian State, no significant differences are noticed in the leadership behaviour of male and female heads of schools along twelve dimensions, viz., representationism, demand, reconciliation, tolerance uncertainty, persuasiveness, initiating structure, tolerance freedom, role assumption, consideration, production emphasis, predictive accuracy, integration and superior orientation. The study found that, of various dimensions of leadership, integration is significantly related (at 0.05 level) with sex as a variable. This suggests that female heads are better than males in working together as a team; settling conflicts when they occur in the group; coordinating the work; helping group members in solving their differences; and maintaining a closely knit group. Both the headmasters and the headmistresses were found to be almost equally effective as far as their leadership behaviour in schools, as perceived by their teachers, is concerned. Leaving aside one dimension, this study supports the finding of Morsink (1970). A review of behavioural and attitudinal studies on the performance of women principals on issues related to--instructional supervision, relations with students, parents, community, general administration, teacher attitudes towards and attitudes of women principals towards their jobs--women fared better than men. They were found more capable in areas that involved relating to students, staff or parents. The perceived effectiveness of women principals was found to be as high as that of their male counterparts, if not higher (Fischel and Pottker, 1977). A study of role performance by Bhagia (1985), under progress, gives similar indications.

vi) Career aspirations: These career mobile women express high career aspirations and would like to reach the top of the educational administrations in their respective states. Some, however, express genuine apprehensions of discrimination and see the reality in clearer terms. For instance, women in separate women cadre (U.P.) who have reached the narrow penultimate rung of their cadre would like to go up further but know there is only one post of a Joint Director above them and only one of the fifteen of them (regional directoresses and deputy directors) will make it. Younger women in mixed cadres are more confident and positive about their ability to make it to the top, everywhere.

Professional Preparation and Career Development

Most educational administrators including women are one time teachers who become institutional heads and later get promoted or selected to area administration. There are no formal requirements of professional training in educational administration, as such, though some education departments in the Universities offer it as a paper in the Bachelors of Education or Masters of Education Programmes and as specialization for Ph.D. programmes in education. Traditionally, the requirement is a master's degree in a subject and a teaching degree along with it for teaching senior secondary classes, principalship and administrative posts in educational directorates. For the direct entrants at several levels the requirements vary from state to state and at times a teaching degree is not compulsory but post graduate qualifications are often required. The educational administrators come to their appointments without any professional preparation for administration.

There is a growing realization that training is necessary, pre-service if possible, but in-service definitely. No organisation is expected to go far without adequate provision for staff development through short-term/long-term training, refresher courses and advanced training in its particular field of interest. And all this requires a sound research base and inputs. Professionalization of educational administration is at a low in the developing third world on account of, meagre training facilities, insufficient staff development policies and lack of professional organisation of educational administrators. How will it affect women educational administrators?

In India, for instance, some infrastructure exists at the national level for the in-service training of educational administrators and planners. The National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration conducts research, training and consultancy in the area of educational planning and administration and is making an attempt to help develop such expertise at the state level, for it cannot (and should not) cater singly to around 650,000 heads of institutions at all levels of education and to thousands of educational administrators manning state, district and block level administration of education, besides those administering higher education. Within this constraint, NIEPA trains educational administrators annually including area officers of district and state level, and some institutional heads. Within this a broad observation is that very few women educational administrators come to NIEPA for training. Whether it is on account of their small numbers/proportion at the district and state levels or that they are not encouraged to come by their departments and/or

families needs to be explored. In an average group of 20-25 trainees for a course, there are never more than one or two women, at times none. The only exception is a course run for women degree college principals numbering 25-30 annually. This year short orientation programmes for women secondary school principals and women area education officers are being started by NIEPA.

So long as women had an upward mobility channel independent of men in female cadres continued effort to participate in professional development programmes and activities was perhaps not as crucial. When they come to compete in open cadres, some of the disabilities of their sex roles are bound to affect their life chances. For instance, it is known that women principals often refuse promotions as area officers on account of their families. The fact of their low geographical mobility is all too known, as the place of their family residence is determined by the location of the husband who, mostly, is a higher status professional, in the case of those women who are married. Single women do move out and up relatively more easily. Occasionally, the explanation for their low participation in in-service training programmes is given as the reluctance on the part of women administrators themselves or their families. There is a definite need to explore their under-representation in professional training programmes and whether it is due to some genuine constraints or sheer neglect.

As yet, no research evidence on women facing disciminiation in educational administration or other public services exists. Popular writings and interviews indicate the subtlety of the whole process wherever discimination is illegal. Exploration is needed in this area. For instance, quoting a young male district education officer of an Indian State, "We give equality to women. In fact, they are doing better and are highly qualified. Our Deputy Director of Education (Administration) is a woman and we all depend on her for everything. Women can't move away from their families. So in order to get their talent, which we need, our government is forming district panels for Assistant Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors which is to be done by direct recruitment." His other remark that, recently, for 14 general places of district education officers women applied but not one was selected. Only one woman got in against a reserved post for women.

In India, despite a sufficiently long history of women as educational administrators, stereotypes regarding women in the minds of men, who are bosses, are not very different from their Western counterparts: "To be a woman is to provoke an automatic, irrational, institutionalized judgement that one is dangerously incapable of being a leader, simply because one is female." (Biklan and Brannigan, 1980).

As told by a young woman District Inspector of Schools, a direct recruit to the provincial eduation services of a large Indian state. "When two of us joined the P.E.S., we were not given principalships of intermediate colleges and were instead made district officers in charge of primary education. The women's colleges were all headed by women's cadre and was not thought fit to make us heads of boys' inter-colleges on the grounds we shall not be able to control them. Even for my present appointment, I was asked whether I would be able to head a district administration by my director. I said, 'why not Sir? Why don't you try?' The male colleagues of our batch got the districts according to their seniority."

Conclusion

It is important to raise some central questions regarding the place of women in educational administration in India and other third world countries, for here too the bulk of the educated women enter teaching. In India women form roughly a third of the student body and teachers, but a very small proportion comparatively are educational administrators.[1] The situation in Sri Lanka is not too different, where women form 54% of the teachers and more than half the number of students. At the secondary level, there are 6 girls to 4 boys. A similar situation also occurs in Philippines where women formed 85% of the first level teachers (similar to the American case) and 53% of the teachers in higher education in 1982. Earlier we have noted the 1980 government act in Philippines that is working for sex equity in all public services including education. The low participation of women in educational administration is a fact of third world countries which have low female enrollments and lower projections of teachers who are female, and also where female enrollments and teachers outnumber men (See Tables 1 & 2 at Appendix). This phenomenon needs to be carefully studied for working out training models for professional development of women educational administrators.

Earlier, we noted the influence of the women's movement in promoting sex equity and also the affirmative action by governments in the West. The important aspect to be noted is the initiative taken by women in developing programmes for leadership training for increased effectiveness among women educational administrators (Winslow, 1980)[1] and major projects like Sex Equity in Educational Leadership (SEEL)[2] funded by Women's Education Equity Act (WEEA) (Schmuck, 1980). The setting up of the Association of Women's Education Administration in Oregon is another step towards professionalisation of women education administrators.

---

[1]Leadership and Learning, Inc. is a non-profit firm incorporated in June, 1977, initially as a Carnegie funded project--now located at Center School, Lincoln, Massachussetts, 01773. Since 1973, this organisation is offering in-service programmes in personal growth and professional effectiveness with special emphasis on women. Women administrators are isolated and have little of a professional support system. Questions raised are, "How do women enter a school system? Do they find encouragement and helpful advice from other women, other men administrators? Do supervisors encourage upward mobility? What personal and professional support system do they find? Do they develop some? In what way are these systems helpful? Do the males share their information and/or political network? How do women administrators learn on the job? Is the learning different for women than for men?" Two groups, 16 women at different levels of district educational administrator and six women from different districts, have formed a collective support.

[2]The Sex Equity in Educational Leadership Project (SEEL) is funded by Women's Education Equity Act (WEEA) for 1976-79. WEEA serves as an important change in federal priorities--first crack in the federal bureaucracy concerning women's education equity, and yearly funds about 80 projects. SEEL was created to develop and test strategies (in Oregon) to increase women's representation in school management. The strategy is multi-level and aims at changing individual's perspectives by providing information, making issues visible and attacking negative stereotypes, changing issues and attacking negative stereotypes, changing organisational perspectives, getting organized to include male allies, getting hired and dealing with isolation at the top.

In India and other third world countries that became independent during 1950, a slackening of the women's movement and women's participation in public and political decision-making was noticed. During the UN Decade for women, a resurgence and awakening of women about themselves is to be noticed, but, as yet, sex equity issues get lost or submerged in battles against dire poverty and underdevelopment. There is a clear realization that women are to be actors in development and not beneficiaries and targets only. As yet in India, where we have seen re-awakening among womenhood in the last decade very prominently, the issues that are more immediate appear to be focussed on raising the economic and consciousness levels of a large mass of Indian women who are illiterate and unaware of their legal and constitutional rights. Organisations of professional women for achieving sex equity in professions are yet to emerge. It would be of interest to develop this facet by studying the existing efforts of women elsewhere and by networking with the same. A beginning has to be made in the direction of the professional preparation and development of women educational administrators in India and the third world both on grounds of equity and efficiency.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Appadarai, A. Statue of Woman in South Asia, Calcutta, Orient and Longman, 1954.

Asthena, Pratima, Women's Movement in India, Delhi: Vikas, 1974.

Beck, Rois and Nikki Keddie (eds.), Women in the Muslim World, London: Harvard University Press.

Beverley, Lindsay (ed.), Comparative Perspectives of the Third World Women, New York: Praeger, 1981.

Bernard Jessie, Women and Public Interests: An Essay in Policy and Protest, Chichago: Aldina, 1971.

Bhatty, Z., "Status of Muslim Women and Social change" in B.R. Nanda (ed.) India Women from Purdah to Modernity, New Delhi: Vikas, 1967.

Bhagia, N.M., Role Performance of College Heads, National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, Delhi: 1985 (in progress).

Biklen Sari Knopp & Marilyn B. Brannigan (eds.), Women and Educational Leadership, Toronto: Lexington Books, 1980.

Boserup, Ester., Woman's Role in Economic Development, London: George Allen and Unwin Ltd., 1970.

Burstyn, Joan. N., "Historical Perspectives on Women in Educational Leadership" in Bikler and Brannigan (eds.), 1980.

Clement, J., Sex Bias in School Leadership, Evanston, Ill: Integrated Education Associates, 1975.

Cooper, Cary L. & Marilyn J. Davidson, Women in Management, London: Heinmann, 1984.

Deem, Rosemary, Women and Schooling, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1978.

De Souza, Alfred, Women in Contemporary India and South Asia, New Delhi: Manohar, 1980.

Estler, Suzanna, "Women as Leaders in Public Education" Signs: Journal of Women in Culture and Society, Winter, 1975.

Fishel, Andras and Janice Pottker, "Performance of Women Principals: A Review of Behavioural and Attitudinal Studies" Journal of National Association for Women Deans, Administrators and Counsellors, Spring, 1975.

Fogarty, Michael, Women in Top Jobs 1968-1979, London: George Allen, 1971.

Fox, Mary Frank, Women at Work, U.S.: Mayfield Publishing Company, 1984.

Friedan, Betty, The Feminine Mystique, New York: Norton, 1963.

Futehally, Laeeg, (ed.) Women in the Third World, Bombay: Jaico, 1980.

Gribskov, Margaret, "Feminism and the Woman School Administrator" in Sari Knapp Biklen and Marilyn B. Brannigan (eds.) Women and Educational Leadership, Toronto: Lexington Books, 1980.

Gross, Neal and Trask, Anna, The Sex Factor and the Management of Schools, New York: Wiley, 1976.

Howard, Suzanne, "Why Aren't Women Administering Our Schools?" NCAWE, Arlington: Virginia, 1975.

Kaur, Manmohan, Role of Women in the Freedom Movement (1947-1954), Delhi: Sterling Publishers, 1968.

Karim, Nazmul, A.K., Changing Society in India and Pakistan: A Study in Social Change and Social Stratification, Pakistan: Oxford University Press, 1956.

Kelly, Gail P., (ed.) Women's Education in the Third World: Comparative Perspectives, Albany State University, 1982.

Marlaine, Lockheed and Katherine P. Hall, "Conceptualizing Sex as a Status Characteristic" Journal of Social Issues, 1976.

McClure, John and McClure, Gail, "The Case of the Vanishing Women: Implications for the Preparation of Women Educational Administrators" UCEA Review, 1974.

Menon, M. Indu, Status of Muslim Women in India--A Case Study of Kerala, New Delhi: Uppal Publishing House, 1981.

Morsink, H.M., "Leadership Behaviour of Men and Women Principals" Bulletin of National Association of Secondary School Principals, 1970.

Nanda, B.R., (ed.) Indian Women from Purdah to Modernity, New Delhi: Vikas, 1967.

Nayar, Usha, "Role Commitment and Role Conflict of Women" Secondary School Teachers of Delhi, unpublished M.Ed. dissertation, Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi: 1974.

_____, "Women of Sri Lanka" in Social Change, Vol. 7, No. 3 & 4, September-December, Delhi: 1977.

_____, "Education of Women in India: Evolution and Prospects" in Indian Review of Management Future, 1983.

_____, "Women of the Highlands--The Nepali Case", IX International Anthropological Conference, New Delhi: 1978.

_____, Women Teachers in South Asia, A Comparative Study of Social Mobility, Occupational Role Commitment and Role Conflict of Women Teachers based on empirical work, Ph.E. Dissertation, Jamia Millia Islamia, New Delhi: 1984.

_____, "Education of Women in South Asia--Policy and Management Issues", paper presented to World Comparative Education Conference, Paris, 1984.

_____, "Education of Women: A Major Poseur for the Commonwealth" CCEA Newsletter, Vol. 6, No. 6, September 1984.

_____, "Cultural Roots of Oppression: Patterns of Women's Education in India" in Susheela Kaushik (ed.), Women's Oppression: Patterns and Perspectives, New Delhi: Shakti Books, 1985.

_____, Women in Educational Administration in the Third World: The Indian Case, Research Project in progress, National Institute of Educational Planning and Administration, New Delhi, 1985.

Norman, B.N., "A Study of Women in Leadership Position in North California" The Delta-Kappa-Gamma Bulletin, 36, 1970.

O'Connor, C., "Leadership in Our Public Schools" School and Community, 55, 1969.

Paddock, Susan, "Women's Careers in Administration" (Ph.D. dissertation), University of Oregon, 1977.

Phadnis, Urmila and Indira Malani (eds.), Women of the World, Delhi: Vikas, 1978.

Ratner, R.S. (ed.), Equal Employment Policy for Women, Philadelphia: Temple University Press, 1980.

Schmuck, Patricia A., Changing Women's Representation in School Management: A Systems Perspective, in Bilken and Brannigan, 1980.

Silverstone, Rosalis and Ward, Careers of Professional Women.

Singh, Harinder Mohan, "A Study of Leadership Behaviour of Heads of Secondary Schools in Haryana and its Correlates" Ph.D. disseration, B.N. Chakravarty University, Kurukshetra, Haryana, India, 1977.

Stockard, Jean, "Public Prejudice against Women School Administrators: Fact or Fiction?", 1977.

Taylor, H.A., "Women in Administration", American School and University, 12, 1963.

Ward, E. Barbara, Women in the New Asia: The Changing Social Roles of Men and Women in South East Asia, UNESCO, 1963.

Winslow, Mary Bowes, "Leadership Training for Increased Effectiveness among Women Educational Administrators: Two Local Models" in Biklen and Brannigan (1980), Women and Educational Leadership.

ILO, World Labour Report, 2, Geneva: 1985.

International Labour Organisation, Recruitment, Training and Career Development in the Public Service, Report of the Joint Committee on the Public Service, Third Session, Geneva: 1983.

	Enrolment Ratios at the First, Second and Third Levels										Percentage Female Teachers at Ist IInd and IIIrd Level			
		First Level			Second Level			Third Level						
re of the untry	Year	M	F	% of F	M	F	% of F	M	F	% of F	Year	First Level	Second Level	Third Level
ia														
ghanistan	1981	56	13		18	5		2.8	0.5		1981	21	18	7
ngladesh	1981	72	52		24	5		4.9	0.8		1981	8	7	12
tan	1983	30	16		5	1		0.4	0.1		1970	14	NA	27(1
rma	1977	87	81		22	18		-	-		1970	42	NA	NA
ia	1980	93	64		39	20		12.5	4.7		1980	26	23	18
donesia	1982	124	116		38	27		5.5	2.7		1982	33	27	17
an	1982	112	81		48	32		5.1	2.2		1982	47	30	14(1
aq	1982	114	103		70	39		13.4	6.5		1982	58	45	18
pan	1981	100	100		92	93		39.9	20.3		1981	57	26	14
rea, Dem. p. of	1976	118	114		-	-		-	-		-	NA	NA	NA
rea Repu.of	1983	102	99		94	85		33.1	13.5		1983	41	28	17
laysia	1981	94	91		54	51		5.2	4.0		1983	47	46	28
ldives	-	-	-		-	-		-	-		-	-	-	NA
pal	1980	126	53		33	9		4.8	1.2		1980	10	9	16
kistan	1981	57	31		20	8		2.8	1.1		1981	31	30	12
lippines	1981	109	107		60	64		24.4	28.9		1982	85	NA	53
gapore	1982	111	105		65	66		12.4	8.8		1982	69	54	20
d Lanka	1981	106	101		49	54		3.2	2.4		1972	52	NA	17(1
iland	1980	98	94		30	28		-	-		1980	49	24	57(1

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Progress of Girls Education in India during 1950-51 and 1980-81 (in 000s)

	Pre-primary	Primary (Class I-V)	Middle (Class VI-VIII)	Secondary (Class IX-XI-XII)	College & Univy. (Gen. Edn)	Professional Edn. (College level)	Vocational & Tech. Edn. (School level)	Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
1950-51	13 (89)	5,380 (39)	534 (22)	161 (16)	41 (16)	6 (10)	259 (19)	6,400 (33)
1955-56	31 (68)	7,649 (44)	868 (26)	318 (26)	84 (20)	13 (9)	235 (15)	9,189 (37)
1960-61	82 (85)	11,400 (48)	11,670 (35)	541 (25)	150 (27)	33 (13)	422 (25)	14,262 (42)
1965-66	122 (87)	18,293 (50)	2,846 (35)	1,172 (24)	324 (37)	105 (16)	737 (52)	23,595 (50)
1970-71	168 (88)	21,306 (60)	3,889 (43)	1,708 (37)	614 (38)	138 (15)	603 (60)	28,426 (53)
1975-76	256 (82)	25,011 (61)	5,034 (49)	2,083 (41)	873 (43)	198 (15)	266 (37)	33,764 (55)
1980-81	325 (85)	27,973 (65)	6,910 (52)	3,098 (43)	1,000 (45)	238 (15)	320 (38)	38,964 (55)

Source : Ministry of Education and Culture

1. Figures in brackets indicate numbers of girls per 100 boys

Africa												
Congo	1980	-	-	-	-	9.6	1.6	1981	26	11	9	
Egypt	1981	90	65	62	46	19.1	10.1	1981	49	32	NA	
Ethiopia	1981	60	33	16	8	0.9	0.1	1980	22	NA	9(	
Ghana	1981	84	65	43	26	2.0	0.6	1980	42	21	9(	
Kenya	1981	110	101	24	16	-	-	1975	29	NA	NA	
Mauritius	1982	107	105	53	49	1.2	0.4	1982	44	NA	16	
Nigeria	1970	47	27	-	-	-	-	1970	24	18	NA	
Uganda	1982	69	51	11	5	0.9	0.3	1981	29	14	7	
Tanzania	1981	107	98	4	2	0.7	0.1	1981	37	27	10	
Zambia	1980	102	90	22	12	-	-	1980	40	NA	7(	
Zimbabwe	1982	130	121	27	19	0.1	0.8	1982	36	NA	17	
Barbados	1980	117	117	84	85	12.6	14.6	1980	NA	NA	26	
Cuba	1982	112	105	70	75	18.0	20.6	1982	76	48	40	
Mexico	1981	122	120	54	49	18.9	10.1	1970	61	33	NA	
Chile	1982	133	110	56	62	12.5	8.2	1979	74	52	20	
Colombia	1981	129	132	45	51	13.2	10.7	1981	79	45	21	

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

III. EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN DEVELOPING AREAS: COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

TOWARDS A GENDER--INCLUSIVE THEORY OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

by

Lynn Davies
University of Birmingham

It is an irony that educational administration, as a practice, is not at all educational. It teaches nothing to those being administered, except perhaps the strategies for countering control and the devices for manipulating the managers. More significantly, for the purposes of this paper, it teaches us very little about the underrepresentation of certain groups such as women in the senior management of schools throughout many parts of the world. Concerns about equality have certainly been voiced of late; but the emphasis has been on "getting more women into management," or "helping women to reach the top." This paper will argue that gender imbalances in school management should provoke a fundamental critique of the concept or practice of educational administration itself, rather than focus on the shortcomings and biases of individual women--or men--as they operate within a given system.

There is a parallel here with the concerns about female underachievement and wastage in school. Programmes to channel more girls into science and technology revealed the need for a deeper examination of the abstract and dehumanised notion of "science" as we conceive it in our curricula. If girls do not like science, do we change girls or do we redefine "science?" Similarly, if women do not strive for senior positions in schools, do we remould women or do we begin to question the hierarchically ordered and increasingly technicist notions that we have of "educational administration?" By developing a critical theory of educational administration as it relates to gender, and by presenting some preliminary findings from a research project on women in educational administration in the Third World, this paper attempts to suggest alternative models for school management which would challenge any pressure to change potential female administrators into substitute males.

Conflict and Critical Theories

A conflict of perspective on educational administration seeks to trace the different access to resources such as power that particular groups in organisations have, and to identify in whose real interests an institution operates. It asks what ideological, financial and emotional mechanisms are used in the distribution of scarce resources, and how power inequalities become legitimised - either within a school, or between a school and its paymasters.

Within a conflict perspective, there is a growing body of analysis derived from the Frankfurt School which is developing a radical "critical theory" of educational administration. Starting from a concern with social class inequality and the dilemmas of the modern State, writers such as Bates (1982,1983), Giroux (1983) and Watkins (1983), have traced the transfer of scientific management from industrial corporations to school organisation, and have revealed educational administration as a technology of control and a legitimator of repression. Through its emphasis on "efficiency," on "rationality," on "performance targets," and through a mystification of the expert management process, the growth of scientific management is seen as a means to increase control over workers--in this case teachers. Work tasks are fragmented and the decision-making capacity of the worker/teacher is reduced. By presenting school organisational problems as technical problems, "it ignores the power relationships, class structure and legitimating ideologies around which organisations are structures" (Watkins, 1983).

The traditional idea of the charismatic headteacher relying on personality, relationships and teaching experience is being replaced by the notion of the specially trained management stylist who will raise standards (targets) and rationalise the personnel's efforts through specific and expert "techniques." Administrative issues become separated from the educational issues, and the language of the machine replaces the negotiative communication of the responsible individual. Systems approaches, cybernetics and feedback loops are the metaphors which provide "uncontestable descriptions of the way things are" (Bates, 1982) and obscure the interests of the dominating techno-administrative elite. The current language of administrative discourse--accountability, cost-effectiveness and staff rationalisation--"ties education to the corporate sector regardless of the continuing stratification and inequalities that exist" (Watkins, 1983).

With regard to developing countries, the cult of the "expert" and the institutionalism of the "scientific" may not have had so much impact as in the West (certainly few of the Heads in our survey had received management training). There is therefore a sense of urgency--before the Taylorism revival spreads its net--in realising that there may be other forms of educational organisation than the industrial, top-down and technicist models.

Clearly, newer phenomenological approaches to school organisation have gained ground over the last decade (Greenfield, 1973, 1978), but it has been argued that British and American educational administration still lacks a firm social science foundation. Questions of the social class, age, gender or ethnic group of the "members" of school organisations have rarely been raised in terms of their own staff interaction, rather in terms of the pupil or student and the effectiveness of learning. "It is almost as if there is an assumption that anything that is good for the client must be good for the staff" (Tipton, 1985). In current educational administration there is a

> reliance on psychology and social psychology, and ignorance or fear of European sociology and political science, party politics and the labour movement. The first manifests itself in a preponderance of writing on leadership characteristics and effectiveness (perhaps through 'participation') and small-group behaviour in organisations. The second in a preference for the politically uncomplicating framework of systems theory.

Tipton goes on to argue for a study of educational institutions as <u>workplaces</u>, looking at orientations to employment and at the design of work--relatively well-developed themes in the sociology of work, but not in the sociology of the school. Classic studies of car workers' attitudes to their job and to the organisational setting have yet to be replicated in schools; we know little of the social circumstances and out-of-work activities of teachers. Yet given that in many countries these employees will more often than not be women, it is strange that an unexplored dimension is their important outside work identities--as housewife, mother or daughter or aging parents and in-laws.

Gender and Management

There is also an urgency in rethinking our scope of analysis when we consider that the participation of women in educational administration may become more rather than less limited. In the UK, for example, we see a decline in the number of women Heads. The spread of co-education, the rationalisation of comprehensive schools and the growth of the business-oriented management ethic have all combined to project men as increasingly more suitable for the running of large-scale organisations. It might well be that men teachers in the Third World will also appropriate the image of the high-tech Principal, to the exlusion of women (in the same way that agricultural technology was often appropriated by, or aimed at, men--in spite of women being the main agricultural producers in many countries).

Critical theorists have traditionally been concerned with class domination rather than gender domination because of their reliance on the language of Marxist scholars. Yet exploration of the interests and power differentials of other social groupings leads to similar conclusions and avenues of critique. How is it that women have come to be excluded from "efficient", "rational" and "scientific" management? While many developing countries do suspect Western models of "rationality" and analyse them as a means to perpetuate dependency, there needs to be a recognition that such models are not gender-neutral either, but were conceived by men and carry unexplicated masculinist biases.

A classic example of this is of "leadership." Intriligator (1983) has done a wonderful demolition job on the Great Man and classical leadership theories:

> Assuming that leadership theory is formed by and has impact on the culture in which it exists, it is not surprising that traditional leadership theory was proposed for, researched on and normed on male leaders in male-oriented institutions.... Because theories are systems for organizing past and future experience, their value is two-fold: they provide a way to pattern or understand what happened in the past, and they help us predict what will happen in the future. We create worlds reifying experience in theories. Leadership theory potentially frames the way that money, status and power to change are distributed or not distributed. By definition, leaders have their hands on the levers that move the world. Leadership theory that assumes a male perspective, or theory in which male values are so deeply embedded as to be invisible, ensures that only males, or women adopting male views, will be selected as leaders, will continue to lead and thereby set courses, define visions and create new worlds. The current realities of organizational life make this situation untenable.

Intriligator goes on to analyse the male bias by which leadership "traits" were identified, and discusses the alternative impact of the behavioural and contingency theorists. She suggests that social exchange theories are, in fact, the most relevant for the acknowledgement of gender issues in contemporary organisations, for leadership of this sort is "characterised by an avoidance of direct controntation between the leader and work group" and leaders "avoid interaction that make evident power and status differentials" (Jacobs, 1971). Social exchange implies that people will be willing to devote extensive effort to their employing organisations if they feel they are receiving appropriate and equitable benefits in return. "The leader is required to persuade others that behaving in a desired fashion is in their own self-interests, which they evaluate primarily through data and logic. Obviously, in order to persuade employees that desired behaviour is in their own self-interests, the leader must know how the particular employees think, what they value and what excites them and interests them about their work or job"(Intriligator, 1983).

In stressing the need for leaders to know the orientations of employees, we see the parallels to the sociology of the workplace approach envisaged by Titon. However, a question mark still remains over whether it is sufficient to identify the behaviours of "effective" leaders (even if incorporating both sexes) unless we return to the issue raised by the critical theorists of what "effectiveness" --and hence power--is being used for, and in whose ultimate interests. It is not enough to have more women in positions of leadership, or even a different concept of "effective leadership" if the bulk of women teachers still experience differentials in the amount of day-to-day power they can exercise in the school, and if little attention is paid to the overall socio-political structure in which schools and teachers operate (including gender imbalances in such power structures). The notion of economic bargaining may be appealing in management terms, but it may not finally be a fair exchange if the traders start from different capital bases.

Marcuse's concept of "surplus repression" is a valuable one here: while all countries need an amount of "socially useful repression" to contain individual desires, "surplus repression" is "that portion which is the result of specific soietal conditions sustained in the interests of domination" (Marcuse, 1964). Just as the surplus of value from work accrues to the owners of the means of production, surplus--or unnecessary--repression, embodied in the ethos and practices that characterise school, workplace and family, serves to ensure psychological acceptance of servitude. While Marcuse was talking of class domination, it might be argued that women in particular suffer "surplus repression"--in this case in the interests of male supremacy. Certainly the literature on female deviance and female conformity shows girls and women "over-controlled" through child-rearing practices, educational institutions, law enforcement agencies and religious doctrines (Davies, 1984). This is another reason to be hesitant about social exchange theories of management. If all that women teachers have to offer in terms of attractions to management is compliance and hard work, then a bargaining model may in the end merely confirm women in supporting roles. An interesting question would be whether societies exercising surplus repression in domestic terms also have fewer women in decision-making capacities in education. The point is that it is essential to

examine management theories in the social and cultural context in which they are first generated, then accepted and finally exercised in educational institutions. It would be foolhardy to attempt an international theory of educational "leadership" without recognition of the existing power dimensions among those being "led." Hence the need for empirical, country-based research.

The Pilot Survey

The first part of our project to explore women in educational administration in the Third World was to begin to document the existing research, literature and statistics on the relative positions of women in teaching in Third World countries (see Davies, 1986). Then came the design of a research instrument which could provide qualitative information on the attitudes and perceptions of teachers and Heads themselves in various countries. A pilot questionnaire was devised and distributed from which we are beginning to get preliminary returns, and which will generate the form of the next stage research instruments. While the numbers are at present small (162 teachers), lopsided (106 men and 56 women) and from two countries only (Ghana and Sierra Leone), it may be of interest to indicate the trends so far emerging--and the reasons why the whole "questionnaire" may need a thorough redesign.

We asked questions to elicit sex differences in three main interlocking areas: the perceptual (ambitions, career planning, job satisfaction and performance); the domestic (family and marriage commitments); the organisational (responsibilities in school, mentoring and leadership). As no claims to generalisability are being made at present, the findings will be presented very badly and without any serious statistics.

Firstly, men teachers and male Heads appear at first sight to be more "ambitious" than their female counterparts. Whether they are aiming inside or outside the teaching profession, men would like jobs of higher status and/or remuneration than would women. Half the male Heads were going to be Director of Education, but none of the female Heads. Only men wrote phrases like "eminent educationist" or "to reach the top." In terms of planning a career, half the male Heads opposed to a quarter of the female Heads said they had planned their career from the start. The classroom teachers showed fewer sex differences, most indicating that they evaluated their career as they went along rather than planning from the beginning.

In terms of job performance and satisfaction, there were at first sight few discernible sex differences. Unsurprisingly, teachers felt they did best the things they liked best, and the things they liked best revolved around the actual pedagogic role--imparting knowledge, explaining, problem-solving, discussion and practical work. There was then more variety within a sex than between the sexes: teachers and Heads of both sexes would either like or dislike marking, like or dislike extra-curricular activities, like or dislike preparation of lessons.

Perhaps the most telling sex difference was in response to the question "What aspects of your job do you do least well?", where only male teachers and male Heads firmly stated "nil" or "none." This fits in with the literature showing women more likely to identify their own weaknesses (Hennig and Jardin, 1978). Again, because of our masculinist terminology, such differences have been described as men being "more confident" or women "lacking confidence;" what happens when we say women are "less arrogant?" It certainly has implications for any assertiveness training. Similarly, rather than reiterating the usual cry that women are "less ambitious," it might be equally fruitful to denote men as "more pushy." A study of women's orientations should act to cast doubts on the achievement obsession of our contemporary world, and question whether "goal-directedness" or the ego-tripping "confidence" are always the universal goods that we proclaim. It is essential that gender-inclusive research in educational administration does not start from the male-as-norm principle and unsurprisingly confirm what it is that women "lack;" instead it should begin to value as positive the realistic and insightful attitudes that women may have towards self and career. We might even describe men as lacking the skills of self-analysis and being neurotic about power. Apparently women <u>do</u> have long-term visions, but they bear in mind that others will have expectations of them. The research shows that they tend to inquire as to the long-range consequences of social decisions rather than short-range technical economic gains. Men, as a group, on the other hand, are "bearers of the Western industrial society's techno-economic rationality in which economic goals are permitted to legalize exploitation or disregard other human beings" (UNITAR 1979). While critical theory has located such "rationality" as derived from the needs of the modern capitalist State, it is crucial to recall that the ideology may not be evenly spread throughout a population, and that women may provide the best source for resistance to exploitative uni-directional goal-setting. Hence the design, language and interpretation of questionnaires tackling issues of teachers' goals and ambitions will have to be very carefully done; ours is still fraught with dangers and unexplicated assumptions, and will need much revision.

The perceptual area clearly overlaps with the second area, the personal/domestic, particularly when exploring the reasons for entering teaching. Out of the 17 possible reasons, the top three for both sexes in Ghana and for men teachers in Sierra Leone were "Enjoyed actual teaching process", "Wanted intellectual stimulation" and "Academic subject interest." This fits with the finding that teachers of both sexes enjoyed the same things about their job. However, female teachers in both countries also gave "Best career for married person" a high priority, which no sierra Leone men and only two Ghanaain men did. The top three reasons for Sierra Leone women were "Enjoyed contact with children," "Working conditions" (hours, holidays, etc.) and "Enjoyed actual teaching process." The picture of a more child--or family--oriented female teacher is confirmed by the questions relating to home responsibilities. Women teachers were more likely to have to go home immediately after school to be with children or relatives; and they spent more hours per week on domestic tasks. Yet interestingly, female Heads <u>also</u> spent more time on domestic tasks than did their male counterparts, the same average amount of time as the female class teacher. It would appear that domestic commitments do not necessarily hold

women back, but presumably require greater skill at time management--or simply harder work all round. It must be noted, too, that the sex differences in amount of labour were not vast, and that many men also had problems doing school work at home, or experienced difficulty going out in the evenings or weekends to attend school functions.

A greater involvement by females in their family life is a traditional and obvious "cause" of female underachievement in promotion; yet again it might be preferable to see this as a positive strength than a handicap. Naturally, any feminist would want to see a more equitable division of labour and responsibility in the home; but for many cultures this would hardly be achieved overnight. Instead I shall be arguing that management training ought to assume a level of domestic responsibility, and should work from there, rather than forcing women--and even men--into covering up their personal commitments or feeling guilty about them as "interference." We have for too long accepted the Weberian bureaucratic notion of efficiency being achieved through sharp divisions and role specialisation, by commitment to the organisation having somehow to take automatic precedence over commitment to family. This is the western-derived, classic "modernity" theory of role fragmentation: the more modern a country, the more segmented it was supposed to be, to avoid corruption and spillage between the various functions. (A sharply bounded senior management role was, of course, also predicated on the male assumption of a 40 hour plus working week with a non-working spouse at home.) Yet while not advocating a return to nepotism or moonlighting, it is time to acknowledge the multiple roles that we all play in our everyday lives. We will teach and administer more effectively if we are not made to feel defensive or despairing about our other identities, but rather see them as normal and even contributory to our school life and work. The parent who successfully raises four children and organises a household has many pedagogic and managerial skills at their disposal; yet we rarely acknowledge this, still less give increments or promotion points for child-rearing.

The third area--the organisational--again raises questions about responsibilities, but this time within the school. Respondents were asked which of a list of various school tasks it would be preferable to allot to men, to women, or to either sex. There were some predictable sexual divisions, with men being seen as preferable for boys' welfare and boys' discipline, and female teachers for girls' welfare and discipline; otherwise areas such as the supervision of probationers, cover for absent staff, INSET, school visits, careers advice and examination administration were more likely to be allocated to either sex than to one sex in particular. However, there were some interesting exceptions. Males were likely to be seen as preferable for the timetable, for curriculum development and for the organisation of special events. Females were chosen for hospitality and for pupils' personal problems. Sometimes Heads were equally divided between the three categories--male, female, either--but there was not one job in the school that some Head did not think better done by one sex or the other. No male Heads thought women would be better at the timetable. Interestingly, male teachers in Ghana were more inclined to give all the duties to themselves. We begin to see not only some preconceptions about male "organisational" roles and female 'caring' roles,

but also a suspicion that females might get fewer opportunities for anticipatory socialisation into some of the basic administrative functions of a school.

A question on mentoring revealed further that three-quarters of the male Heads had been encouraged by their Principal to apply for promotion, as opposed to only a quarter of the female Heads. When asked about preference for male or female Heads, the majority of the teachers said it did not matter; but if they did make a choice, it was more likely to be male (29 male headship choices, 3 female headship choices). The tendency was that those who already had a woman Principal indicated that it did not matter what sex of leader they had; those with a male Head were equally likely to state a male preference. Familiarity with a female leader certainly does not breed contempt, but an apparent realisation that leadership can be open to both sexes; familiarity with a male leader may merely confirm headship as an appropriate masculine role.

It still seems important to break the vicious circle whereby females are not seen as equally competent at organisational or managerial skills, therefore are given fewer opportunities to demonstrate and practise them, therefore receive less mentoring from superiors within the school, and therefore provide fewer role models for women or examples of management for men.

Management Models

Differences between countries which have already emerged, taken with a phenomenological analysis which insists on the primacy of the social and power context of a school, may mean that it is extravagant to attempt any global recommendations for a management model which will be both gender-inclusive and culturally acceptable. Nonetheless, some broad imperatives suggest themselves. Those management analyses which have been concerned about gender imbalances have generally started from a normative view of the effective manager and probed how far women approximated to the model. Were they equally high scoring on "initiation structure" and "consideration structure?" Were they sufficiently career-oriented, assertive, forceful? This investigation has suggested that we are asking the wrong questions. Instead of asking why more women are not reaching the top, we should be asking fundamental questions about the nature of, or even the need for a "top." Progress has been made in moving on from biological to socialisational and then to organisational "constraints" on women, but all these still constitute victim analysis rather than concept analysis. They focus on the deficits of women and leave unrealised a deeper critique of those activities women are supposedly constrained from doing.

We must not be fooled by the language of existing managerial definitions. Leaving aside the obvious issue that in most management texts for both developed and developing countries the manager is still referred to as exclusively male, there are deeper questions. "The principles underlying the organisation of schools are not different from those applicable to a commercial undertaking" writes Paisey (1984). "The purpose of management is the organisation of resources (including manpower) to produce the optimum result." Reducing teachers (whether manpower or womanpower) to the level of 'resources' is a typically dehumanising--and one might submit masculinist--approach.

The reason why so many educational innovations fail is because teachers refuse to see themselves as mere intermediaries for the achievement of national goals. Until we encourage all teachers to identify their own requirements from work; until we sort out any gender, race, social class or other structural differences in these requirements or in the likelihood of their being met; until management is seen primarily as a coordinatory and not a control activity, we are unlikely to see the growing industry of educational management as anything but a means to hinder national objectives such as self-reliance, growth or, indeed, equality.

It is no mere semantic shift that has led to the word "administration" being gradually replaced by "management" in educational literature and training. "Management" reflects not only a suitably scientific and commercial ethos, but also encapsulates the people-control function in a way 'administration' never did. If management as currently conceived is primarily about control, then our interest should not lie in having more women in control. Our interest should be in power sharing rather than power acquisition. It should be in collaboration rather than domination--however scientifically masked as "decision-centralisation." There is no point in switching to women oppressing men, still less to women oppressing other women.

From the survey we find sex differences in "ambition"--so let us reappraise our acceptance of ambition, drive, upward mobility and our traditional concepts of "career development." We find sex differences in the extent of "dual roles" experienced by teachers - so let us incorporate the implication of that dual role in or management training. We find gender categorization among teachers and Heads in terms of suitability for organisational tasks and for "leadership" --so let us insist that any management theory should take into account staff definitions of each other and acknowledge the existing and socially constructed imbalances in whose definitions prevail in any organisation. Rather than "harmonising" or "rationalising" or even "neutering" our staff, we do better to use conflicts and differences as a source of creative tension and productive critique.

Holistic Management

A gender-inclusive model of educational management therefore points to a very different orientation in our thinking and training. It is what I shall term "holistic management," and it is holistic in two ways. Firstly it includes the whole staff; and secondly it includes the whole person. Hackneyed phrases perhaps; but it's curious how, in educational management terms, they have been hitherto ignored. In its borrowing from industrial and corporate settings, educational management appears to forget one crucial and obvious difference: unlike car assembly workers, all teachers are themselves people managers. Their clientele may be younger, rougher and less sophisticated; but the principles of classroom management are no different from organisational or personnel management in general. Successful classroom interaction is by nature about decision-making, goal setting, communication, negotiation, bargaining, delegation, participation and time management, about identifying power interests and networks of allegiance among pupils. And yet we appear to have arrived at the position whereby a mystique has been erected around educational "leadership"

and only the controllers, or potential controllers, are selected for "management training." A privileged secrecy and a jargon surrounds the "techniques" which they learn. There is a strange anomaly that the administrator is taken out of the classroom, even out of the staffroom, and then has to be sent on courses to relearn "communication skills" and "participation techniques." They even have to undergo courses on "human relations." What other sorts of relations are there? This is not to argue against specialist or advanced training in certain areas, or indeed against rewards and incentives, but to posit that school management is the one field which should not be a specialism or a highly rewarded field of expertise. Otherwise management training for Heads becomes a question of "to them that hath shall be given."

It is my contention then that all teachers, from the beginning, should receive management training. If there are indeed gender (or ethnic or social class) differences in those who are sponsored for educational management, then the obvious solution is to open up the field to everyone and expose the top-down, "expert" role for the elitist, quasi-masonic cadre that it is. There are indeed skills to be learned, techniques to explore, research to be read; but education is the one field where these should be available to every member of the workforce. It is curious that we can construct whole edifices to train Heads to manage, without equivalent courses for the rest of the staff on how to be managed, let alone appreciate for themselves the transmission of management skills.

A joint training has immediate implications. It would point to a less hierarchical, more collaborative and possibly rotational administrative operation in schools. If management is conceived as a set of skills masterable by everyone, it undermines the notion that only men make "natural" leaders, and it reduces the possibility that women will not have the chance at anticipatory socialisation and the practising of administrative functions. The accountability ideology which is taking hold once more could be effectively fulfilled through job appraisal and self-evaluation by teachers, rather than measuring teachers against an agreed set of performance standards (drawn up, if in Britain, by 87% male administrators). While "appraisal" goes on continuously in schools, it is essential to make this overt and equitable, not covert and partial. Some managers find it difficult to offer criticism to a woman, and so either avoid commenting on shortfalls in performance or unconsciously use different standards when assessing women (MSC, 1983). For appraisal to be equally beneficial, it must be under the control of the teacher concerned. In an interesting appraisal scheme in one secondary school in UK, everything--who does the appraising, what aspects of the teacher's work were appraised, whether there should be a written report, and whether it should be used for references--is decided by the teacher. The staff committee have drawn up a long and detailed questionnaire to help teachers focus their thinking. It covers achievement so far, professional skills development, curriculum development, administration, approach to classroom teaching, ambitions and prospects, extra-curricular activities and relationships with colleagues and parents. Such appraisal will also include comments on the management team in terms of how much support, opportunity or constraint they provide (TES, 15.3.85). Whilst such a scheme was not, of course, designed specifically in the interest of gender

equity, it would seem a radical step forward in the provision of an "educative" environment for all staff. Most management training manuals stress that appraisal requires training; and if teachers are going to conduct their own appraisal, there is even more reason to provide a universal pre-service management education.

The immediate cry will be that developing countries in particular cannot afford management training for all teachers; yet this is not proposed as an addition, but as a substantive replacement on any basic course of teacher training. Rather than tackling the "disciplines"--philosophy or history of education--at ground level and leaving management to future specialists, it makes more sense to make management compulsory in basic training and leave the luxury of reflective theorising to later advanced or in-service courses. Just as compulsory maths and science up to age 16 in the USSR has helped produce a healthy proportion of female technicians and engineers, so compulsory management might help redress the gender differentials among those deemed suitable for management tasks.

The second aspect of holistic management is the personal one. In arguing for concrete recognition of all the roles that we play, this is more than just the traditional human relations style of management--which can be equally manipulative in its benevolent patronage. Newer approaches to time management take the view that a person's home commitments--as well as leisure pursuits, social life and personal development--are not potential "problems" to be "made allowances for," but are vital aspects of all our life goals, and as such should be accorded the respect and the same "planning" that may go into purely work commitments. One of the potential hazards for the aspiring female is the attempt to become Superwoman: staving off guilt feelings about not fulfilling either of her dual roles properly by attempting single-handed perfectionism in both. A time management training, on the other hand, will replace the rising panic with a set of identifiable and attainable directions for both professional and private life, and develop the capacity to prioritize day-to-day tasks in order to remain in control of these directions. It teaches delegation where necessary in any context; the ability and the right to say "no" without fearing loss of esteem; making tasks measurable, with deadlines if that helps; identifying networks of support or possible barriers to achievement. Above all, it reminds us that we all <u>need</u> a private life to function effectively at work. Stress and fatigue are caused not by the things we have done, but by the thought of things we have not done--whether at home or in the classroom. When both teachers and Heads acknowledge that "effective" management is not necessarily about "born leadership" or dedicated graft (requiring a supportive wife?) it will again remove the mystique and make for more equitable communications. It encourages men, too, to think about their long-term personal and family commitments, and how much time should be actively allotted to these. Either sex needs to be aware that "delegation" does not read "exploitation."

This may sound like the advocacy of a return to a somewhat mechanistic management-by-objectives; but the differences are that we are talking about <u>self</u>-management, and about the <u>whole</u> self in its social context--not just a set of work tasks in someone else's interests. This explains why I prefer the term

"directions" to "goals"--for goals have the tendency to become inflexible and to justify any means or any sacrifice of others to achieve them. The research on sex differences in perception and use of time is significant here. Women's time is summarised as "organic", "unsold" and "coordinated;" men's is "one-dimensional," "sold" and "segregated." Women tend not to measure their time in quantitative ways but value it in qualitative terms; they alternate various activities and often do several things at the same time. For men, time is sold time, with visible rewards or wages spelling out what work is worth; attention is concentrated on one task (Pietila, 1984). Thus I would differ with many of the time management courses in their insistence on clearly drawn boundaries between work development and personal development, on only being able to do one thing at a time. Instead I would build on capabilities to function in a co-ordinated and integrated fashion.

Where I concur with the time management literature is the encouragement to do the planning exercises collaboratively with other people. An important section of our listed directions should have to do with what are currently called "strokes"--the attention which one gets from or gives to another person. Positive strokes--praise, gratitude, encouragement, promotion--make us feel happy and important; negative strokes--criticism, ridicule, putdowns--make us feel ill at ease; but no strokes at all is the worst form of mental torture. Management techniques have long acknowledged the need for recognition for all workers--with teachers as no exception; but the suspicion that women teachers may receive fewer strokes from Principals or colleagues indicates the need for something more systematic than the cheery greeting in the corridor. In co-educational schools, women are given fewer "status" tasks, are marginalised (and even subject to sexist putdowns), and receive less encouragement for promotion (Reich and La Fountaine, 1982; Singhal, 1984). In addition, the literature on interaction socially and in meetings indicates women giving more strokes than receiving them, that is, providing supportive comments, listening attentively, being interrupted more, acceding conversational rights and asking interested questions (Spender, 1980).

Management training should therefore firstly encourage the individual to list out directly the positive and negative strokes they receive within their work and home contexts, and analyse whether the overall balance would explain any "loser" behaviour. It should also alert everyone to keep a check on when they last intimated to someone that they appreciated them, and why. A goal of sufficient strokes for all those deserving of them could be part of time management. While tabulating in a formal way the number of strokes given may seem an incredibly mechanistic way of managing human relationships, it might give some indication of whether particular categories of people in an organisation, such as males or females, superiors or subordinates, are receiving more or less than their fair share of recognition.

In singling out the themes of time management and recognition, I have tried merely to identify examples within a holistic management training which gender-focussed research would indicate as relevant. An ethnic, regional or social-class based research design may elicit different recommendations; it must be recognised that different patterns of inequality may posit different

management ideologies. The main criterion for any useful theory of educational administration is that it be reflexive enough to spotlight its own biases and to self-destruct when necessary.

Conclusion

A focus on gender in educational administration at present seems to turn everything on its head. The "logic" of research and model-building has to be reversed. The traditional method for arriving at an analysis of schools has been what one might term the "highest common multiple" approach: beginning at the sacred pinnacle and engaging in the normative "how far" technique. How far can we apply commercial or public sector management to schools? How far can we apply western models to developing countries? How far can we control people in order to achieve political goals? How far do certain groups like women approximate to the "normal" model of effective management? How far can we change women to achieve within this model?

Instead we begin at the lowest common denominator, at the ground or profane level, and ask "what" questions. What do people bring to an organisation? What power bases do they operate from and what are their existing relationships? What are their common needs and what might be their different objectives and requirements from work? What kind of management model would enable the answers to these questions to be logged and projected into a continuous dialectic with the overall objectives for an education system?

A theory of educational administration, like any social theory, contains two features: an explanation of why people act in the way they do, and a set of prescriptions for how they ought to act. This paper has argued the necessity for a structural explanation of why power has come to be exercised in certain ways in schools, with, in this instance, the structural analysis relating both to the overall control function of education and to the peculiarly male-derived forms and language through which this control is mediated. It has argued that the very practice or conceptualising of educational administration itself may act to consolidate repression and to deskill the mass of teachers, unless attention is paid to embedded and unequitable features of educational organisations such as gender. "Paying attention" to gender in researching teachers' attitudes to their organisational life in two developing countries has led in this instance to prescriptions for "holistic management." A gender-inclusive theory would also be a power-inclusive theory, which would point to the need for a common managerial training for all school personnel. Power differentials are not reduced by having alternative operators of power, or even new styles of "leadership," but by everyone having access to the skills which promote control over one's personal environment. The inclusion of gender concerns in educational administration is not advocated merely to benefit women, but in order to generate a critical methodology which would provide greater flexibility and potential for both men and women--and as both teachers and learners.

Bibliography

Bates, R. "Towards a Critical Practice of Educational Administration" Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration Studies in Educational Administration, No. 27, 1982.

Bates, R. (ed.) Educational Administration and the Management of Knowledge, Australia: Deakin University, 1983.

Davies, L. Pupil Power: Deviance and Gender in School, Falmer, 1984.

Davies, L. "Women, Educational Management and the Third World: A Comparative Framework for Analysis" International Journal of Educational Development, Vol. 6, No. 1, 1986.

Greenfield, T. "Organisations as Social Inventions: Rethinking Assumptions about Change" Journal of Applied Behavioural Science, Vol. 9(5), pp. 551-574, 1973.

Greenfield, T. "Reflections on Organisational Theory and the Truths of Irreconcilable Realities" Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 14(2), pp. 1-73, 1978.

Henig, M. and Jardim, A. The Managerial Woman, New York: Pocket Books, 1978.

Intriligator, B. "Leadership Theory Revisited" Journal of Educational Equity and Leadership, vol. 3(1), pp. 5-17, 1983.

Jacobs, T. Leadership and Exchange in Formal Organisations Human Resources Research Organisation, 1971.

Marcuse, H. One Dimensional Man Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1964.

MSC No Barriers Here? A Guide to Career Development Issues in the Employment of Women, UK: Manpower Services Commission, 1983.

Paisey, A. School Management: A Case Approach Harper and Row, 1984.

Pietila, H. "Women as an Alternative Culture Here and Now" Development 4, 1984.

Reich, C. and La Fountaine, H. "The Effects of Sex on Careers within Education: Implications for a Plan of Action" Canadian Journal of Education Vol. 7(2), pp. 64-84, 1984.

Singhal, S. "The Development of Educated Women in India: reflections of a social psychologist" Comparative Education, Vol. 20(3), pp. 355-370, 1984.

Spender, D. "Talking in Class" in Spender, D. and Sarah, E. (eds) Learning to Lose: Sexism and Education, London: The Women's Press, 1980.

Tipton, B. "Educational Organisations as Workplaces" British Journal of Sociology of Education, Vol. 6(1), 1985.

UNITAR Women and Technology in the Industrialised Countries Science and Technology Working Papers Series No. 8, UN Institute for Training and Research, 1979.

Watkins, P. "Scientific Management and Critical Theory in Educational Administration" in Bates, R. op cit., 1983.

CRITICAL ISSUES IN THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN DEVELOPING AREAS

by

Earle H. Newton
Faculty of Education
University of West Indies
Cave Hill,
Barbados

Introduction

Given the current thrust in education across the Caribbean today and considering the strain which is being put on our limited resources to sustain and increase this thrust, it is incumbent on all concerned to strive to ensure that the greatest value accrues to the greatest possible number. The nations of the region cannot afford to commit man-power, money and other resources to education, and yet remain complacent over high degrees of failure or be satisfied with mediocre performances in their schools. It is being recognized that the mere provision of places in the form of buildings is not enough, and attention is being turned to the training of personnel to man the schools and systems. The particular aspect of education that is of immediate interest in the context of this symposium is the preparation and training of persons to give leadership, direction and inspiration to education in the region. The purpose of this paper is to examine some critical areas for decision-making in this regard.

Should We Import Theories and Models of Training from the Developed World?

It is customary for the developing world to turn to the developed world for models, for solutions to our problems. It perhaps seems quite natural to do so considering their experience and development. Yet, today there is enough evidence to suggest the need to proceed very cautiously in this direction with respect to educational administration.

For example, Wiggins (1979) reminds us that human experience is contextually bound. He argues that it is the failure on the part of the developed world to recognize this fact that has led to their efforts to assist the developing world being branded as "imperialistic, colonialistic gestures of the strong over the weak". Wiggins maintains that the assumption regarding the generalizability of educational models of the developed world is both morally wrong and scientifically primitive.

Greenfield (1975) had raised similar issues at Bristol in 1974. he said:

> In particular we need to ask whether the theory and assumptions still appear to hold in the settings where they were developed before they are recommended and applied to totally new settings. Such an examination is not only appropriate but essential in the light of an alternative view which sees organizations not as structures subject to universal law but as cultural artifacts dependent upon the specific meaning and intentions of people within them. (Greenfield 1975:74)

Greenfield, as he explained in a later paper (Greenfield 1978) had three major concerns when he addressed the Bristol Conference. These were

1. to question the dominant theory in the study of organization.

2. to cast doubt on the mechanics for promulgating that theory from the developed world to the developing nations.

3. to question the legitimacy of training administrators to be effective by imbuing them with the theory.

These three concerns are still very important for us today in the developing world, and I shall examine each one briefly.

The dominant theory Greenfield was challenging was the positivists theory which holds that organizations are the same wherever they are, and regardless of what functions they serve. The search, therefore, is for a general theory of organizations that is so-to-speak out there waiting to be discovered.

Greenfield argues that to accept this is to make unproblematic that which is problematic, to ignore the role of human action within organizations, to reify organizations. He confronts the positivist view with a phenomenological perspective in these words:

> If we see organizations and individuals as inextricably intertwined, it may not be easy to alter organizaitons, or to lead them, or to administer them without touching something unexpectedly human. More importantly, the view that people and organizations are inseparable requires us to reassess the commonly accepted claim that there exists a body of theory and principle which provides the touchstone for effective administrative action in organizations.
>
> (Greenfield 1975: 71-2)

In a phenomenological perspective there are no fixed ways of seeing and constructing the world around us. There can therefore be no general theory of organization.

Greenfield argues that the way we interpret the world around us does not depend on universal ideas and values but rather is the product of our peculiar circumstances and settings.

He continues:

> Our concept of organization must therefore rest upon the view of people in particular times and places, and any effort to understand them in terms of a single set of ideas, values and laws must be doomed to failure.
>
> (Greenfield 1975:75)

Educational Administration has been greatly influenced by the system approach of the positivist paradigm. The view that educational administration is a unique activity has been rejected by theorists in the field (Griffiths 1977, Hoy 1978) for a general theory of administraiton which describes, explains and predicts behaviour in any and all organizations. Greenfield's call therefore provoked strong reactions. In 1979 Deblois observed:

> Somehow the monolithic perspective in the field of educational administration has been fissured. Professors and students alike began to take an interest in the alternative perspective and to explore the possibilities it offered.
>
> (Deblois 1979:1)

It is interesting to observe that no standard text book in educational administration that I know of presents the alternative perspective. While the controversy apparently still goes on in the pages of the journal the teaching of educational administration appears to be generally unaffected by it. Planners of training programmes in the developing world must recognize the controversy that surrounds the area of educational administration theory, and avoid pursuing paths that may turn out to be cul-de-sacs.

With respect to the second issue - the transferability of theories and models from the developed to the developing world, there is enough evidence to support the legitimacy of Greenfield's concern. There is a considerable body of literature on research into organizational functioning across cultures. Although, as Marshall (1982) points out, it provides no clear answer to the question of the transferability of theories of organizational behaviour across cultures, yet it leaves no doubt that we are in a controversial area, where caution is of the essence.

Lammers and Hickson after reviewing a number of cross cultural organizational studies concluded that organizations are culture-bound. Their findings are summarized in these words:

> The culture and sub-culture in a society have a potential impact on organizational form and processes: because outside agencies set cultural constraints for an organization: because dominant elites in an organization design and redesign organizational life in terms of culturally given models of organizing: because members themselves unofficially tend to organize and to counter organize in ways derived from sub-cultures.
>
> (Lammers and Hickson 1978:20)

Lincoln, Hanada and Olson (1981) in a study of Japanese and Japanese American reactions to work and organizations concluded:

> An emerging alternative view is that organizational phenomena are shaped by the cultural values and beliefs, as well as the institutional arrangements of the

> populations in which they are embedded. This research demonstrates that cultural factors affect organizational processes in ways that render universalist statements of the effects of organizational structures on individuals seriously deficient. Organizational structures may indeed be loosely coupled to formal goals but they are closely tied to the social and cultural orientations of the people involved in them. (p.114).

And Kiggundu et al (1983), reviewing 94 articles on organization in developing countries, concluded:

> In general, each time the environment is involved, the theory developed for Western settings does not apply, because it assumes contingencies that may not be valid for developing countries ... To the extent that contingencies for the utilization of administrative science in developing countries differ from that of industrialized countries, the transfer of management knowledge and technology (e.g. management development, curriculum development, technical assistance) should emphasize process rather than content theories and methods (p. 81).

Leslie Gue of the University of Alberta in a paper entitled "Is Educational Administration, Western style, Exportable" concluded that the answer was "Yes", "No" and "Maybe" (Gue 1982:22). He found that some theories (e.g. decision making) were suitable for export while others (e.g. Motivation or leadership) should be approached with the greatest caution.

Perhaps the third issue of the greatest importance for the preparation of educational administrators in the developing areas. Greenfield questions the traditional approach that emphasizes the study of organization theory and social science of organizations. He advocates the study of specific organizations and their problems and he calls for a stronger clinical base in the training of practitioners. There was a fair degree of support in this respect. A surprising source of support for the study of specific organizations was Griffiths, a devoted disciple of the positivist movement ... Griffiths writes:

> ... it seems clear that efforts to develop a general theory of organizations should be replaced by efforts to develop much more restricted theories. Organizations differ so markedly that we should not only be interested in theories about education, but in theorizing about particular types of educational organizations.
> (Griffiths 1979:59)

In 1978, Erickson in a provocative paper takes the field to task for its amorphous nature, for the absence of quality research, for its concentration on areas that have little bearing on education and its consequent neglect of issues that are at the heart of education. Erickson advocates more work in the areas of the consequence of organizational variation in schools or school systems, i.e. work on school effects.

Silver (1980:81:1) deems educational administration an applied profession and declares that the field of educational administration "can and should develop a systematic, cumulative, practice-oriented body of knowledge to inform administrative practice".

Yet in spite of all that has been said as recently as 1982 Bates found it necessary to warn against believing that much has changed in the field of educational administration. he laments that while the social theorists have generally given up the quest for a value-free science of society, the main stream theorists of educational administration are still attempting to develop general laws and principles to explain the structure and dynamics of all organizations. He is particularly concerned over the tendency to educational administrators to separate administrative and educational issues. He cites the popular texts by Hoy and Miskel as an outstanding example of what he terms "this conservative anachronistic approach to educational administration." He observes:

> It is as though the administration of schools and school systems consists entirely of processes of motivation, leadership, decision-making and communication conducted by professional bureaucrats who are responsible for organizational climate, effectiveness and change.
>
> (Bates 1982:2).

This brief examination of the issues raised by Greenfield suggests that we cannot import theories and models from the developed world for the training of our educational administrators. There is too much uncertainty and controversy - over theories, over what constitutes the field, over what is the proper area of focus for research and scholarly investigations. In addition, the doubt over whether models from the industrialised world will work effectively or at all in the developing world further compounds the problem.

<u>How do we set about planning for training?</u>

If the non-feasibility of importing training models and theories from the developed world is accepted, the important question becomes - how then do we, in developing societies, set about planning for the preparation of our educational administrators? Where do we start?

If, like Alice, we do not know or care where we are going then any route will take us there and it would matter little what training we provide for our administrators. We would all, I'm sure, reject the position as untenable. We would, on the other hand, accept that administrators must be able to ask and answer the question 'Manage for what ends?' It follows from this, that their preparation and training cannot be

carried out in a vaccuum. If it is to be meaningful, it needs a context, a purpose and a direction. It seems logical to suggest therefore that the first important step for a developing society is to assess where it is, to decide where it wants to go and to define as clearly as it can, the role it wants its educational system to play in its development. It is only against the kinds of decisions that arise from this first step that the training of educational administrators can meaningfully and realistically be undertaken. Only then can administrators be trained to view and project the school as an "organization in a cultural and historical milieu (attempting) to relate the objective need for schooling with social and economic realities" (Foster 1980).

Whatever the context in which we are operating, excellence in education stands out as one of the justifiable means for which we should be managing. I believe we would all endorse the sentiment expressed below and seek ways of making it a reality.

> ... we should not compromise when it comes to the educational achievements of our children. We must strive for the very best given the constraints under which we work. We must set our sights high and use every effort to achieve them. (Duignan 1985)

Excellence in educational as in business institutions is directly related to the quality of leadership provided by the top administrator or executive. There is a growing body of research literature that links administrative action with effectiveness in schools (Purkey and Smith 1983, Shoemaker and Fraser 1981, Smyth 1980).

What type of training and when should training take place?

If therefore, excellence is an overriding aim we hold for education we are faced with two important areas for decision-making:

1. We must consider the wisdom of continuing to appoint administrators only on the basis of their educational expertise, (where the successful teacher is the potential administrator). A better alternative might be to strive to move to the point where training is available and potential administrators can be selected on both their educational and their administrative expertise.

2. At the level of training, decisions would have to be made as to the content and methodology of training programmes.

Let us briefly examine these two areas. In putting forward for consideration what Andrews (1980) call the Specialist Professional Model for the selection of educational administrators we are not unaware of the magnitude of the financial economic and resources problems involved. We recognise, that in societies where the teaching force can be both professionally as well as educationally inadequate careful consideration would have to be given to the large-scale provision of training for potential rather than actual administrators. Yet, we believe that if the educational system are to be properly guided for effective education we cannot escape the urgency of properly trained leaders and managers. The assumption that good class-room practitioners make good administrators may not always hold. In any event, it

nourishes the deception that educational administration be it at the school or the systems level is to be equated with teaching. Early exposure of the teacher to training in educational administration will help both in selecting the best persons for administrative posts and in broadening the teachers' educational vision.

The second issue - what sort of training is needed? is no less complex. North American texts are replete with lists of skills, knowledge and competencies that an administrator must have in order to function effectively in schools. These lists can become quite vast and diffuse. Indeed, they are often so formidable that one is left to wonder to what extent they are to be taken seriously. For example, one writer (Nickerson 1972) endorses this illustrative list of 14 areas of preparation deemed necessary for secondary school principals - Change, Innovation and Diffusing; Curriculum and Instruction; Effective Communication; Finance; Human Relations; Learning Environment; Negotiations; Organization and Development; Political Science; Problem-Solving; Research and Evaluation; School Law; Social Awareness, and Systems Analysis. To this list he adds psychology, sociology, history, government and international relations and the value of technology.

Can we in the developing world contemplate this kind of training for our educational administrators? While it is unwise to dismiss lightly the experiences and ideas of the developed world it seems to me that notions of training such as this will not get us very far. On the other hand we must guard against going to the other extreme and providing our administrators with a set of technical skills and nothing more.

Fortunately, there are useful leads in the developed world which we can profitably pursue. A useful framework for arriving at the content of training is Brainard's (1975) three fields of expertise for school administrators. These three areas are:

1. technical skills and knowledge
2. human relations skills and knowledge, and
3. conceptual analytic skills and knowledge.

Technical skills and knowledge are those needed to operate the plant and keep it functioning. Examples of their skills are timetabling and budgeting. Equipped with these skills and knowledge the Manager can reasonably be expected to be an organizational maintainer, to keep the ship afloat.

Human relations skills and knowledge embrace a wide range of skills and knowledge necessary to deal with those with whom the administrator must come into contact, especially those he encounters on a regular basis. This is a vital area of training for all managers. The effective headteacher must lead, motivate, inspire, communicate, encourgae, reprimand and correct, and all this requires skills of the highest order.

The conceptual, analytic skills are difficult to define. These skills are necessary for maximising the effectiveness of educational administrators, schools and educational systems.

Using Brainard's framework of necessary expertise, planners of training programmes for educational administrators could identify the content deemed necessary for their contexts. Boyd (1980) has a word of advise for programme planners. He suggest that

while more research is needed on the attributes of effective schools and especially on the administrative behaviours that aid effectiveness it is clear that school management and the preparation of school administrators need to be rigourously redirected towards the enhancement of the outcomes of schooling for children. Useful conclusions may also be drawn from the literature on effective schools and effective principals. With respect to methodology Silver's (1980-81) call for a clinical practice-oriented approach might be considered seriously.

Can we proceed without research?

Having raised questions about the validity of transferring developed-world models and skills in educational administration to the developing world, I would insist that the first order of business for institutions in the developing world is to profile school administrators in their own settings. The planning of professional development and preparation programmes requires an indigenous knowledge base about the realities of school administration in a given context. Developing countries like ours in the Caribbean will remain in a state of intellectual dependency in educational administration unless the necessary research is undertaken to provide the requisite contextual data for programme building.

In this short paper, I have attempted to draw attention to what I consider the major areas for decision-making in the preparation of educational administrators in developing countries. I am very glad I did not set myself the task of making the actual decisions. Decisions hopefully are easier to arrive at if we know what we are making decisions about.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

BATES, R. (1982) "Towards a Critical Practice of Educational Administration", Studies in Educational Administration 27.3:1-15.

BOYD, W.L. (1980) "What School Administrators Do and Don't Do: Implications for Effective Schools", Canadian Admininstrator. 22:6.

BRAINARD, E. (1975) The Colorado Department of Education and the development of school district based administrator renewal programs. Denver, Colorado State Department of Education. ERIC ED114993.

DEBLOIS, C. (1979) "Challenge to Administrative Theory", Canadian Administrator, 18:8.

DUIGAN, (1985)

ERICKSON, D. (1978) Research on Educational Administration The State of the Art. Address to the Annual Meeting AEREA Toronto, March.

FOSTER, W.P. (1980) "The Changing Administrator: Developing Managerial Praxis", Educational Theory. 30.1:11-23.

GREENFIELD, T. (1978) "Reflections on Organization Theory and the Truths of Irreconcilable Realities. Educational Administration Quarterly. 14.2:1-23.

_____, (1975) Theory About Organization: A New Perspective and its Implications for Schools in Hughes M., editor Administering Education: International Challenge - Athlone Press.

GRIFFITHS, D.E.(1975) The Individual in Organization: A Theoretical Perspective, Educational Administration Quarterly. 15.3:43-65.

_____ (1978) Another look at research on the behavior of administrators in G. Immegart and W. Boyd (eds.), Problem finding in educational administration, Lexington Books.

HOY, W. (1978) "Scientific Research in Educational Administration", Educational Administration Quarterly. 14.3:1-12.

HOY, W.W. & G.G. MISKEL (1982) Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice. Randon House.

KIGGUNDU, M. JORGENSEN, J. & HATSI, T. (1983) "Administrative Theory and Practice in Developing Countries: A Synthesis Administrative Science Quarterly. 28, 1983:66-84.

LAMMERS, D.J. & D.J. HICKSON (1979) "Are Organizations Culture-Bound?", in Lammers & Hickson, Organizations Alike and Unlike, Routledge & Kegan Paul, 1979.

LINCOLN, J.R. & HANADA, P. et al (1981) "Cultural orientations and Individual Reactions: A Study of Japenese-Owned Firms", Administrative Science Quarterly 26.2

MARSHALL, D.G. (1982) "Educational Administration in Developing Areas: A Role for Canadian Scholars". Paper presented to the CSSE Conference Ottawa, 1982.

MARSHALL, D.G. & NEWTON, E.H. (1983) The Professional Preparation of School Administrators in Developing Countries: Some Issues for Decision-Making. Occasional Paper No. 3. Department of Educational Foundations, Centre for International Education and Development, University of Alberta, June 1983.

SHOEMAKER, J. & FRASER. H. (1981) "What Principals Can Do: Some Implications From Studies of Effective Schooling", Phi Delta Kappan, 178-182.

*2 SMYTH, W.J. (1980) Educational Leadership in Schools: What it Might Mean. The Educational Administrator, 1980 (1) 5 pp. 56-68.

*1 SILVER, P. (1980-81) "The Development of a Knowledge Base for the Practice of Educational Administration", Administrators Notebook. 29.1.

WIGGINS, J. (1979) "Emergent Shifts in Administrative Training Models in the Americas", paper presented at the First Inter-American Conference on Educational Administration, Brazil.

THE DELIVERY OF PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION AND DEVELOPMENT PROGRAMS FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS: THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

by

Dr. D.G. Marshall
Dean,
Faculty of Education
Nipissing University College
North Bay, Ontario
Canada

INTRODUCTION

This symposium is witness to a growing interest in the professional development and preparation of educational managers. Previous activities in the Caribbean like the 1982 Jamaica workshop[1] and the 1978 Commonwealth Secretariat Workshop[2] attest to the fact that this interest is not spontaneous or particulary new. Similarly in Canada, we have had graduate programs in educational administration, summer workshops, and research projects on the topic for over 20 years. However, if I was to examine the "state of the art" of the preparation and professional development of administrators in Canada, I would not be impressed with our progress. Our graduate programs are under fire from practicing administrators for their lack of relevance. In Manitoba, we have estimated that less than 20% of the school level administrators have availed themselves of university coursework in school administration.[3] Summer workshops and divisional inservice sessions get a more positive reaction from practitioners but are presented in no organized fashion, the substance and delivery of such sessions dependent upon one or two "committee" meetings to decide "what will we do this year?" Finally, our researchers in professional development and preparation of school administrators are drowning in a sea of needs analyses.

WHY SPECIALIST TRAINING?

The purpose of the present paper is to suggest some directions that might be taken to address present dilemmas in the professional preparation and development of school administrators, especially those in developing areas. Before doing so, however, it may be appropriate to briefly discuss the issue of specialist preparation and development for educational administrators.

It has not always been the case that such specialist training has been seen as necessary for school administrators. Although most countries in the democratic world are moving towards what is termed the specialist professional model for the training and selection of school administrators,[4] arguments have been made that there are considerable negative effects to credentialism of any form, including specialist training for professional groups such as teachers and school administrators.[5] Specific criticisms of specialist credentials for school administrators include the following: (1) Administrators; (2) Requirements become a restriction on local autonomy to select and hire school administrators; (3) Most requirements are irrelevant to the individual's ability to perform the job of school administrator; (4) Administrative groups promote the training process on their own, not the public's interest.[6] Furthermore, some authors writing about the American

experience with administrator certification have noted that there are apparently no demonstrable relationships between specialist credentials for educational administrators and their records of success in schools.[7] Given the possible negative consequence of administrator credentialism, ranging from the contention that in general it is harmful to society, to concerns more specific to administrator training, decisions to implement specialist training policies should not be taken lightly.

In spite of these criticisms, there may also be a number of pragmatic reasons for (re)considering the issues of specialist training for school administrators.

First, is the recognition that there are unique competencies required to effectively carry out these duties of school administration. This implies that attainment of these unique competencies would indicate appropriateness for selection to the job of school administration. This suggests that success as a teacher, or political affiliation alone is not enough to ensure success as a school administrator. Although both of these "qualifications" (depending upon context) may be good places to start, opportunities must be available for prospective or present school administrators to develop the unique competencies of their administrative positions. Furthermore, there is growing awareness that "generic" professional preparation in administration is not sufficient, but rather that specific or "specialist professional" preparation for school administration is important.[8]

Second, recent years have witnessed changing conceptions of the practice of school administration. Recent developments such as changing social norms, erosion of some of the traditional authority of the school administrator, changes in education generally, changes in required knowledge base, and changes in teachers are amongst the factors promoting a changing conception of the school administrator.[9] This changing conception has induced the consideration of new roles for school administrators, roles that existing training programs do not address.

Third, research on school effects has demonstrated more clearly than ever before that school administrators do make a difference in school outcomes. A profile of the characteristics of school administrators who lead productive schools is now emerging.[10] There is now evidence of leadership impact on variables such as curriculum implementation and student outcome that supports the notion that where school administrators exercise leadership in program improvement then the impact is considerable.[11]

Fourth, many of the criticisms directed at specialist credentials for school administrators have more to do with the process of obtaining the credentials than with the concept of specialist preparation for school administrators. That is, criticisms have their source in the substance of preparation and development programs and the system effects of this substance rather than in the notion that school administrators should receive specialist preparation and development. To reject the specialist professional model on the basis of its implementation rather than its conceptual validity is like throwing out the tub with the water. A basic assumption of this paper is that the specialist professional model is valid, but that the manner in which it is being implemented in many locations has given rise to justified criticisms which have pointed out the deleterious effects of specialist administrator credentialism.

THE STATE OF THE ART

It is this author's opinion that there is a need for an increased professional identity for school administrators. But, this identity is slow in developing. Although there appears to be a movement towards recognizing the appropriateness of the specialist model, many existing approaches to professional preparation and development have not totally reflected this recognition. For instance, only 3 provinces out of the 10 in Canada require, by regulation, that school administrators take some form of preservice training and none require an upgrading program of any kind.[12] Essentially the delivery of pre and inservice programs for school administrators in Canada could be characterized as follows.

(1) University coursework, or university based programs are becoming the major, often only, source of preservice training.

(2) There is a growing disatisfaction with the place of the university in offering preservice training.

(3) Inservices for educational administrators are frequent, but unplanned and unco-ordinated.

(4) Existing training or professional development focuses primarily upon school level administrators. Almost nothing exists for district or division level administrators.

(5) There is little emphasis upon the concept of lifelong learning or continual professional development.

(6) There appears little linkage between inservice and preservice for educational administrators.

The improvement of the "state" in Canada requires the rethinking of our methods of delivery of pre and inservice programs for school administrators. This requires a closer linkage between purpose and method. That is, it requires a closer link between the reasons we choose to take the risks associated with providing pre and inservice speciality training, and the methods we choose to deliver this training.

In the balance of the paper, a framework is presented that was developed in Manitoba, Canada, to guide decisions regarding the preservice and continuing development of school administrators. The need for an action framework grew out of dissatisfaction with the ability of the present state of the provisions of training for school administrators to serve the needs of the "changing conception." The framework assumed as an operating principle the need for a stronger purpose-delivery link.

THE DELIVERY OF SPECIALIST TRAINING FOR SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS

As was discussed in the previous section, a commitment to a specialist model in the preparation and development of school administrators carries with it other system obligations and effects. Agreeing on the need for specialist training could be the easiest of decisions. Developing the substance of a specialist training program has posed much more difficulty for most locations. This substance consists primarily of two issues: (1) the focus of the training program, or the skills toward which the program will be directed, and (2) the appropriate sources for these skills.

Skills for School Administration

There is no shortage of lists of suggested skills, skill areas and competencies for school administration. Most of these skill lists are grouped into areas of concern such as leadership, planning, curriculum development. A number of such skill lists have been developed in every province in Canada.[13] The present author has worked at developing such a skill list in one province, and like the participants at the 1982 Jamaica Symposium, in Manitoba we have tried to determine and suggest which skill area is most important. The Jamaica participants, for example, proposed that competencies in the area of planning, programming and evaluation and personnel management were priority competency areas.[14] Our work in Manitoba identified topics related to personnel management as most important.[15]

All of these lists and skill areas are quite comprehensive and, in general, could be assumed to represent the areas of skills required of school administrators. However, as a planner of pre and inservice programs for school administrators, this writer found these lists, including the ones he generated himself, of little assistance. This is not to argue that all of the skills identified by, for instance, the Jamaica participants are not desirable and should not be pursued to maximize effectiveness. It is to suggest, however, that there is a big step between lists of skills and skill areas and planning programs to develop these skills. This additional step could be found in realistic conceptualization of (a) the job of school administration and (b) the purposes of pre and inservice.

The Concept of a Growth Continuum

One view of the job suggests that there are at least two distinct groups of requisite skills for school administration; those that reflect the technical, managerial aspects of the day-to-day activities of school administrators and those that reflect higher order analytic, problem-solving and decision-making skills. March's characterization of school administration as a "bus schedule with footnotes by Kiergekard" comes to mind here.[16] Other authors have suggested that there could be a

consideration of three fields of expertise for effective administration: (1) technical skills, (2) human relation skills and (3) conceptual analytic skills.[17]

Based upon recent research in Canada, Liethwood and Montgomery identified four role characterizations for principals; the administrator, the humanitarian, the program manager,and the systematic problem solver.[18] Their four role characterizations are very similar to the three fields of expertise identified above. However, they went further than most conceptualizations of roles by proposing that these roles identify variations in effectiveness on selected dimensions of principal behavior, with "the administrator" being the least effective role and the "systematic problem solver" being the most effective. They based their "principal profile" on the assumption that (i) little of the existing research or school administration has looked at variations of principal behavior and its effects (ii) principals' effectiveness is determined by the extent that they facilitate teacher growth and thereby indirectly influence student learning, and (iii) growth in the behavior of school principals can occur, but requires systematic intervention.

It is this last assumption, the proposing of a growth model for school administrators, that is of most relevance to the present paper. Where extensive lists of administrator skills have been at limited use to planners of inservice and preservice programs is the absence of a hierachy of requisite skills and abilities required for varying degrees of effective administration. Regardless of how effectiveness might be defined (Liethwood and Montgomery defined effectiveness in terms of planned change, others rely more heavily on recent school effectiveness research) planners need to be able to (i) assess the stage of growth of school administrators along some path to maximizing effectiveness, and (ii) assign appropriate responsibilities in the development of particular skills along the path.

For instance, one view of reality could be that mastering of the technical-managerial level skills is most important to beginning administrators and that the pursuit of higher order conceptual skills, though of concern, can be put aside until lower level skills are mastered. That is, from casual observation, this writer would suggest that there are many school administrators who are "surviving" on the job but who have not developed (or do not exhibit) higher order "conceptual-analytic" skills. Conversely, it would be difficult to envision school administrators surviving on their "conceptual-analytic" skills if they have not mastered the skills required for operational maintenance. Consequently a hierarchy of skills could be prepared that represents a concern for appropriate timing in the development of these skills for school administrators.

Beginning administrators have different skill needs from practicing administrators and practicing administrators who are effective have different skill needs from administrators who are not effective. As trite as this observation sounds, there is little evidence that planners of training sessions pay heed to this simple maxim of combining purpose with intended audience. For instance, planners for "training sessions" often discuss the priorizing of topics/areas such as leadership, evaluation, planning and so on. More appropriate discussions might focus, for example, upon the question of what planning skills are required by administrators at both different career stages and different effectiveness levels.

For instance, Liethwood and Montgomery[19] identified decision making as a critical dimension of behavior for the school administrator, but also identified the decision making characteristics of the administrator at four growth levels:

Level 4 - skilled in use of multiple forms; matches form to setting and works toward high levels of participation
- decision processes oriented toward goals of education, based on information from personal, prof. & research sources
- anticipates, initiates and monitors decision processes

Level 3 - skilled in use of several forms: selects form based on urgency and desire to involve staff decision processes oriented toward school's program based on information from personal and professional sources
- anticipates most decisions and monitors decision process regularly.

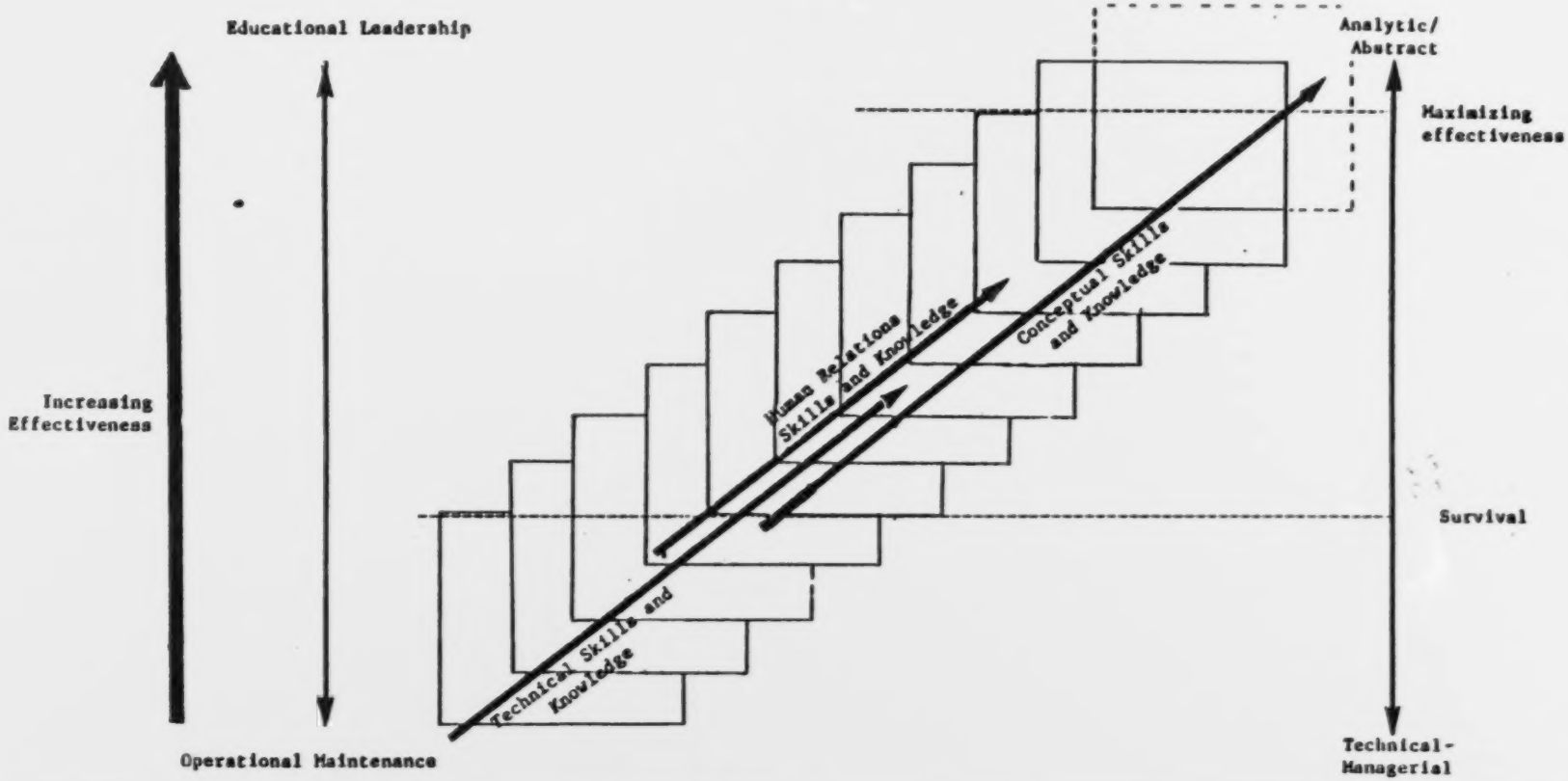
Level 2 - uses primarily participatory forms of decision-making based on a strong motivation to involve staff so they will be happy
- tends to proactive concerning decisions affecting school climate but largely reactive in all other areas unless required to act.

Level 1 - uses primarily autocratic forms of decision-making decision processes oriented toward smooth school admin. based on personal sources of information
- decision processes are reactive, inconsistent and rarely monitored.

Using both the notion of three groups of requisite skills for effective administration and the notion of a hierarchy of skills, a schematic or continuum of skill areas is presented in Figure 1. This schematic is based upon the following assumptions:

FIGURE 1

A Continuum of Administrator Skills[1]



[1] Specific skills not defined here - see 1982 Jamaica Workshop for Caribbean skill list.

(1) Administrators come to the job or the training with basic pre-requisite human relations and conceptual skills and the continuum represents further development of these skills.

(2) Specific skill lists and core competencies such as those identified at the 1982 Jamaica meeting can be used to provide detail in these areas.

(3) A desirable state of affairs and hopefully the intention of any training policy is the pursuit of maximum effectiveness and consequently a high level of development in all skill areas.

However, the following observations or conclusions are more important in attempting to address the purpose-delivery dilemma.

Matching Purpose to Delivery: Preservice Vs Inservice

A first observation is that there is a clear expectation from those seeking pretraining for administration that such training will provide them with the skills required to survive on the job. Research indicates that up to 80% of a school administrators time is spent on what might be referred to as technical-managerial operations.[20] These include personnel management skills of a more technical nature. For example, in the area of teacher evaluation, although this skill area can be seen as both a technical function with a set of guidelines and procedures to guide discretionary decision making and as a higher order human relations taks, many school administrators begin their job with no instruction or experience in this area. One of the results of this in Canada is that teacher evaluation continues to be one of the most requested inservice topics and the requests are not for higher order analysis or conceptual activities but for exposure techniques that "work." There is a technical function in teacher evaluation that school administrators should learn before they assume a position or they may not survive on the job.

Preservice programs must prepare administrators for the reality of the day to day functioning in their jobs. On the continuum in Figure 1 this suggests that preservice programs focus on the technical-managerial and basic human relations aspect of the job. At the 1982 Jamaica meeting, workshops participants identified six core competency areas. The implication of a skill hierarchy is that the planners identify within each of these core competency areas those skills that are a minimum for survival

job of school administrators in their context. These skills should become the focus of preservice (and upgrading for presently non-effective administrators) programs.

A second observation is the expectation that once survival needs have been met by a preservice or upgrading program, the planners should focus on the development of higher order, conceptual, analytic skills. Once again, it should be recognized that all competency areas, such as the six core areas identified in Jamaica, require first the mastery of lower order skills to survive and secondly the pursuant of higher order skills to maximize effectiveness. It should also be recognized that although an administrator could be seen as reaching a point of survival, maximizing effectiveness or the development of higher order skills has no end point. A recognition of this promotes, of course, the idea of lifelong learning and continual professional development as a school administrator.

The notion of matching the nature of professional development activities to professsional and personal growth stages is not new. A basic premise of modern pedagogy has been to challenge students at their own level. Research on effective teaching has demonstrated that effective teachers provide direct or indirect activities based upon pupil's needs and current functioning, with the intent of moving the student to greater capacity without overstressing abilities.[21] We are quick to accept the concomittance of developmental level and pedagogical strategy for children, but slower to recognize a similar framework for the development of adults--in this case teachers and administrators.

Thirdly, although it can be seen how a certain core competency area such as supervision might have a certain technical component that requires mastery for suvival, how can "higher order" or "conceptual/analytic" be characterized in a way that provides meaning to planners of training programs that go past survival? Two different perspectives might help in this instance.

The first is Getzels' discussion of three levels of problem finding: presented problems, discovered problems and created problems.[22] In the presented problem situation, the problem exists, it is propounded to the problem solver, and it has a known formulation or known situation. In the discovered problem situation, the problem also exists but it is "discovered" or "envisaged" by the problem solver. It may or may not have a known solution. In the created "problem" the problem does not exist until someone creates it. The higher order skills that are referred to in the case of the skill continuum are those that surpass the presented and possibly the discovered problem.

A second way of conceptualizing both the skill continuum in general and the high order skills in particularly is the notion of adult cognitive development. There is growing interest in the application of theories of cognitive development to personnel development in educational settings. Essentially, cognitive development theory assumes:[23]

(1) All humans process experience through cognitive structures called stages--Piaget's concept of a schemata.

(2) Such cognitive structures are organized in a hierarchical sequence of stages from the less complex to the more complex.

(3) Growth occurs first within a particular stage and then only to the next stage in the sequence. This latter change is a qualitative shift--a major quantum leap to a significantly more complex system of processing experience.

(4) Growth is neither automatic nor unilateral but occurs only with appropriate interaction between the human and the environment.

(5) Behavior can be determined and predicted by an individual's particular stage of development. Predictions, however, are not exact.

Recent studies in the area of cognitive development have indicated that stages of psychological development (ego, moral, epistemological development) predicted successful functioning in the adult life. More administrators who scored at more complex levels on the epistemlogical development were perceived by their teachers as more flexible in problem solving, more responsive, less rigid and less authoritarian.[24] Again, in terms of the skill hierarchy presented here, increasing effectiveness, higher order skills, conceptual-analytic skills could be seen in the context of increasing cognitive development.

From the skill continuum and from these two examples, some specific purposes for pre and inservice training could be proposed. First, preservice should be directed towards the technical, operational maintenance functions of administrators' jobs that are required for survival. These administrators should be able to handle all manner of "presented problems" and be at a certain stage of cognitive development. Second, once "survival" has been assured, professional development programs should carry on to develop the skills for handling "discovered" and ultimately "created" problems and to promote continued cognitive (moral, ego, epistemological) development.

It still remains to be seen, however, from what source these skills might be attained.

SOURCES OF ADMINISTRATOR SKILLS

Planners in North America have had some difficulty in sorting out the responsibilities in the delivery of pre and inservice programs for school administrators. There has, in fact, been considerably more effort put into the types of knowledge and skills required for administration than into thoughts regarding delivery of this knowledge.

There appears to be three broad sources of administrator skills and knowledge; (1) experience, (2) operating agencies (school district, ministry) programs and (3) university (undergraduate or graduate) courses. There are, of course, many examples of combinations of these sources where operating agencies use university people, and universities incorporate internships in their programs. Generally, however, (and this may be one of the problems) university programs for administrators are distinct from district or ministry activities and both rarely incorporate an experience component into their activities. Of concern here are the questions: What skill areas are addressed primarily by experience, what skill areas are addressed by operating agencies inservice and what skill areas are addressed by university based programs in educational administration?

Regarding agency (district, ministry) operated activities, there appears to be support for the notion that such activities be directed towards what have been referred to in this paper as the technical managerial aspects of the job.[25] Concerning university based coursework in educational administration, it would appear reasonable to conclude that the avowed focus of these programs is what has been referred to here as conceptual analytic skills.[26] Finally, it must be assumed that experience is a crucial source of skills no matter which skill areas are to be addressed. To provide a focus, however, it could be demonstrated that the development of skills in the human relations area is best pursued through the direct experience of dealing with people. Applying this logic to Figure 1 results in the following observations.

(1) The more technical or operational the skill required, the more appropriate becomes delivery by the local, operating (district, ministry) agency.

(2) The more analytic-abstract the skill required, the more appropriate becomes delivery by the university setting.

(3) Human relations and political skills are best attained through experience.

In North America, however, there appears to be some anomalies in this regard.

Although university graduate coursework in educational administration is focussed primarily upon the development of higher order conceptual skills, it is also usually the only formally available source of pre-service school administrator training. In the absence of formal operating agency preservice programs, universities are feeling some pressure to deal with at least the pragmatics of human relations concerns and to some degree with the technical managerial areas. There are several problems here. Firstly, people are accepted into programs of study in education administration because of their academic skills, not their leadership or potential management skills. Secondly, most professors in educational administration do not see the university as providing students with the technical managerial skills for operational maintenance. Thirdly, even if professors of educational administration did see their role in this way, they themselves were not selected on the basis of their experience as school administrators or their knowledge of the technical skills, and consequently many are unqualified to deal with operational maintenance issues.

Consequently, there appears to be a certain role reversal in the source of school administration skills. Operating agency (school district, ministry) directed on-going professional development activities are usually offered after employment as a school administrator, but tend to address technical operational issues crucial to initial survival and operational maintenance. On the other hand, university graduate coursework is quickly becoming a preservice requirement, although university programs are primarily concerned with the development of higher order conceptual and analytic skills most appropriate (and desired) only after experience and only after mastery of the technical operational maintenance skills. Stated in terms of the framework presented earlier in this paper, although there is some recognition of the range of skills required for successful school administration, there appears little logic to the way in which professional preparation and professional development programs for school administrators address these skills.

A CANADIAN CASE STUDY

The purpose-delivery anomaly can be seen by an examination of the delivery of pre and inservice programs for school administrators in one Canadian province.

Manitoba has a total population of approximately one million, a teacher population of approximately 12,000 and approximately 1,000 school administrators. The only form of pre-service education in administration available to these administrators is university graduate courses in educational administration. Inservice available includes these same graduate courses plus three to five days a year of locally initiated inservice. This time could include an annual two day Principals' Association conference. In addition, since 1980, a two week summer

leadership program has been available for school administrators and prospective school administrators. A 1982 survey indicated that less than 20% of existing school administrators had taken, as either a pre or inservice activity, any formal education in administration. Generally, the delivery of pre and inservice work in Manitoba could be characterized by the issues mentioned earlier in this paper: universities as prime source of preservice, universities under some criticism for the nature of their programs for preservice, little link between university coursework and ongoing inservice, no deliberately planned or co-ordinated policy for the preparation or professional development of administrators. With some minor differences, I think it would be fair to say that most other provinces in Canada are not much different. Consequently, the absence of a policy in this area, combined with competition for jobs as administrators has allowed an informal selection process to assume the determining of requirements for school administration. As is the formally established practice in much of US., it is starting to become the expectancy that an M.Ed. in Education Administration be seen as the desired credential to become a school administrator. As has been suggested in this paper, university coursework has a very important role to play in, for instance, the cognitive maturity of administrators. It does not have much of a role in the provisions of the operational maintenance skills required for initial survival on the job.

Essentially then, what has happened is that in the absence of other formal programs university credentials have become the proxy for pre-service training programs for school administrators. This is not a purpose for which they were designed. An attempt has been made in Manitoba to rectify this situation by the development of a two level Principals' certificate. Although the certificate doesn't outline specific skills required for school administration, largely based upon the framework presented in this paper it does assign the provision of certain skill levels and areas to different sources.

The substance of this certificate is presented in Figure 2. The first level of the certificate requires that the candidate attend a 60 hour course (or equivalent) on the technical-operational maintenance skill area. This course is now in development and will be run by the Department of Education in conjunction with the principals' professional association. It is noteworthy that the certificate requirements for the first level (entry level) administrators' certificate specifically excludes university credit coursework, specifying that this 60 hours must be local "operating agency" offered. This is an attempt to readdress the role reversal discussed earlier and is a unique feature of the certificate.

The second level of the certificate can only be attained after two years successful experience as a school administrator and requires that the administrator engage in additional professional development programs that must include a minimum number of university based courses in educational administration. This is based on the assumption, that university programs have as their focus the development of conceptual-analytic skills, best enhanced after experience on the job and after "survival" is no longer a concern.

FIGURE 2
EXAMPLES OF INDIVIDUAL REQUIREMENTS FOR MANITOBA
LEVEL I & II PRINCIPAL CERTIFICATES

INDIVIDUAL QUALIFICATIONS	LEVEL I REQUIREMENTS	LEVEL II REQUIREMENTS
1. B.Ed.—no post degree courses in Ed. Admin. —no admin. experience	(a) 60 hours of prof. devel. activity (not university course) in areas of school & program operational maintenance PLUS 2 graduate courses in educational administration	(a) 2 years administrative experience PLUS 180 hours of which at least 100 hours graduate coursework in Ed. Admin. (3 courses)
2. B.Ed.—no post degree courses in Ed. Admin. —minimum 2 years admin. experience as principal or vice principal	Automatically Given Level I	300 contact hours of study in a combination of p.d. and formal study of which at least 180 (5 courses) must be formal graduate courses in Ed. Admin.
3. Pre-Masters or Masters in Ed. Admin. — no admin. experience	60 hours of p.d. activity (not university) in the areas of school and program operational maintenance.	2 years experience Note: additional grad. course—work in Ed. Admin. may be required to bring total required grad courses in Ed. Admin. to 5.
4. Pre-Masters or Masters in Ed. Admin. and 2 years admin. experience	Automatically Given Level I	Automatically Given Level II—it has 5 graduate level courses (180 contact hours) in Ed. Admin.

Also noteworthy is the assumption that future levels may be "added" to the certificate. That is, it is the intention of the designers of this certificate that over time a level 3, 4, 5 and so on could be available for a prescribed amount of professional development activity. This, of course, is an attempt to address directly the concern for a lifelong learning concept in the profession.

Essentially, the Manitoba approach was designed to take into account (1) the hierarchy and sources of skills as suggested in the framework, (2) the existing skill level of administrators in Manitoba, (3) the existing formal training level of administrators in Manitoba, and (4) the available sources of skills, (5) the avoidance of the undesirable characteristics or trends in the preparation and professional development of school administrators. The certificate has only been put in place for the fall of 1985 so it remains to be seen if it will be successful in "developing" school administrators in Manitoba.

THE CARIBBEAN

This author's knowledge of the Caribbean is limited to experience working and consulting there and to documents like those prepared for and from sessions like the 1978 Commonwealth Secretariat training session in Barbados and the 1982 Jamaica workshop. However, I think it would be reasonable to observe that despite the assistance of several aid agencies and sporadic initiatives on several islands there is as of yet no co-ordinated or long term policy for the pre-service or inservice of school level administrators. This situation prompted, of course, the deliberations at the 1983 Jamaica workshop. In addition to the general pre and inservice problems we have in Canada, planners in the Caribbean are faced with a few unique problems. I would like to briefly discuss two of these special problem areas.

First, there is the obvious difficulty in co-ordinating a training activity for such a diverse and geographically distant area such as the Caribbean. The best brains of the Caribbean financial and political world have only barely been able to hold Caricom together. I'm not sure that one Caricom program for school administrators would survive any better. There are, for instance, considerable differences between both the existing training levels and the availability of local training resources for the three larger Islands of Jamaica, Barbados and Trinidad and other smaller Leeward Islands. A suggestion here would be that, as much as possible, preservice training and ongoing inservice efforts be as local as possible. Localized initiated and planned programs have the advantage of maximizing accessibility to such programs by local personnel and minimizing the resource expenditures and disruption time for the system. Even the smallest of the Leeward Islands has the local expertise to provide, at the very least, the preservice or upgrading training to what has been described in the paper as the "survival" level. Other agencies, especially the U.W.I., have indicated willingness and ability to assist in the delivery of additional programs off campus and in the small island location. This does not mean, of course, that regional efforts are not of significant value, only that such efforts are not

likely to be able to address the situational specifics inherent in the technical or operational maintenance end of the skill continuum suggested in this paper. Consequently, if the urgent need is to have competently trained school-level administrators, the locally developed program may be more suitable. The situation would be different, however, for district level administrators where, on most Islands, numbers warrant the necessity of some regional activity.

Second, is the fact that many developing areas, including the Caribbean rely heavily upon outside foreign agencies for the provision of programs for school administrators. In the past five years, programs have been offered/sponsored by U.S., A.I.D., C.I.D.A., O.C.O.D., British O.D.A., Commonwealth Secretariat and perhaps other smaller groups. I happen to know, for instance, that a small private outfit in Manitoba is presently discussing the offering of training programs for school administrators on one of the smaller Islands. The reason for the proliferation of assistance is partly due to the geographical issue previously discussed. The Islands are, in fact, separate nations and are free to pursue their own sources of training. Such assistance also brings with it needed resources. However, the intervention by these development agencies fills another void: the general lack of a Caribbean data base about school administrators upon which to build a professional preparation or development program. When a Canadian group such as O.C.O.D. comes to the Caribbean, it brings with it, free of charge, a three week inservice program for school administrators that is based upon the realities of school administration in Canada. At issue becomes the utility or applicability to developing areas of North American skills and knowledge in the technical-operation, human relations and conceptual analytic areas.[27]

Regarding technical skills and knowledge, in First World areas there seems to be some consensus that roles and tasks are largely determined by the organizational content in which they work. In the Commonwealth Third World this context is affected by, among other things, (i) an educational system that is a legacy of British colonialism, (ii) an educational environment that is highly centralized, (iii) a large proportion of teachers untrained, (iv) the need to examine the relationship between education and national development. Although some research in administration (public) in developing areas indicates that skills at the technical level are most easily transferred from the developed to developing areas,[28] institutional and environmental factors could temper the utility of these skills in the Third World context.

There is no need to make a special case for the development of higher order human relation skills in Third World school administrators. At issue for the planning of training programs for educational administrators in developing areas is the cross-national validity of research and theory on the organizational behaviour of individuals in public, educational and business organizations. Although there is little research on the specific

topic of educational administration across cultures, there is a considerable amount of research in both the area of public administration in developing areas and organizational behavior/theory across cultures. One example is Hofsteade[29] who (among other things) researched the cross-cultural validity of the popular motivation theories such as those of McClelland, Maslov, Herzberg and Vroom. He concluded that there is considerable doubt about their ability in different (from North America) cultural settings. This, and other similar research, throws into question the utility of North American knowledge and skills in the human relations area for educational administration.

Skills and knowledge in the conceptual analytic area are by their nature, the most difficult to define. There is little argument, however, for the belief that higher order conceptual and human relation skills are necessary for maximizing the effectiveness of school administrators be they in a developed or developing area. However, professional preparation or development efforts directed at this level centre around the body of theoretical knowledge related to the study and practice of educational administration. It is in this "skill area," more than the other two, that issues related to (i) theory in educational administration (developed areas), (ii) theories of development, and (iii) theories of organizational functioning across cultures throw doubt upon the utility of skill or knowledge "transfer." The appropriate developed world-developing world relationship regarding the development of higher order conceptual skills and knowledge should not be a superior-subordinate one, but a dialectic one. As Wiggins[30] suggested, it is necessary to "... replace the mentality of the assistance/intervention model with the transactional/interactive model."

The available evidence regarding the transferability of skills and knowledge in the three skill areas outlined in this paper suggests to planners of "localized" pre and inservice activities that they begin their planning by profiling the job of school administration in their context. In terms of the skill hierarchy/continuum suggested in this paper, this means, in the first instance, determining at the very least the technical/ operational skills required for survival as administrators in their context. At a different level it could require the examination of the cross cultural validity of North American based models of cognitive development.[31]

CONCLUSION AND IMPLICATIONS

As suggested in the introduction to this paper, the issues on the professional preparation and development of school administrators are complex and have yet to be totally resolved in any national setting. The special case of educational administration in developing areas like the Caribbean gives rise to a number of general conclusions that might assist the planning and delivery of professional preparation and development programs for school administrators.

Firstly, the Specialist Professional Model is a desirable goal for the training of school administrators, but the appropriateness of this model is contingent upon the development of indigenous content and delivery mechanisms. The implications here are that, as Kiggunda et al concluded, the process in North America may be appropriate but the content is not.[29] However, even the North American "process" may be somewhat unsuitable in as much as University based programs appear to be the basis of "specialist"

training and, as has been suggested in this paper, university credit-based preservice programs may not be suitable.

A second conclusion, then, is that it is with great caution that the North American experience in the professional preparation and development of school administrators be used as a guide or model for Caribbean planners. North American models have been developed endogenously through several decades of trial and error. To import these models results in the shaping of training programs by forces exogenous to the "unique social fabric" of the Caribbean.[30] University programs in educational administration offered in the Caribbean should be especially cautious of the use of North American theories and models of school administration.

Thirdly, despite the previous two conclusions, the experiences and models in, for instance, Canada can be of great assistance to planners in the Caribbean. In many instances although the content may be inappropriate, some aspects of the delivery systems might be worthy of consideration by third world planners. In Manitoba, Canada, for example a school administrators' certificate programme has been developed based upon the rationale and model presented in this paper. In addition, at the university level, planners of training programs for educational planners in the third world might benefit considerably by a close look at the present location of the university in North America in the training schemata of such personnel. In comparative sense, the differences in program emphasis between, say, the U.S. and Canada (and Great Britain) might provide working examples for emulation for rejection.

As a final and more general conclusion regarding the planning of training programs for school administrators in the Caribbean, it should be pointed out that there is no quick formula for the development of such programs. Canada has been moving towards the specialist professional model for several decades and is still a long way from an ideal state in this regard. Planners of such training programs in the Caribbean must realize that although they can learn much from the experiences in the "developed" world (if only what <u>not</u> to do!) it is more important that the delivery models of such programs be indigenously developed and that attempts should not be made, at either the preservice or inservice level, to uncritically import models from North America or elsewhere.

References

[1]Commonwealth Secretariat, (a) A Commonwealth Regional Training Program for Educational Administration: Report of a Commonwealth Regional Meeting July 5-7, (Kingston, Jamaica: 1982).

[2]Commonwealth Secretariat, (b) Regional Training Session, Bridgetown, Barbados: July, 1978).

[3]D.G. Marshall, (a) Inservice Needs of School Administrators in Manitoba, (Unpublished paper, University of Manitoba, Winnipeg, Manitoba: 1980).

[4]J.M. Andrews, "International perspective on the preparation of educational administrators," in Canadian and Comparative Educational Administration, ed. R. Farquhar and I. Housego (Centre for Continuing Education, The University of British Columbia, 1980).

[5]M. Marian, "Beyond Credentialism: The Future of Social Selection," Social Policy, 2:3, (1971) 32-33.

[6]M. Lieberman, "The Case for Junking All Certification," American School Board Journal, 164:7, (1977) 32-33.

[7]J. Higley, "Training and Certification of Principals," N.A.E.S.P. Leadership Series 12 (1975).

[8]Andrews, 278.

[9]W.I. Boyd and R.I. Crowson, "The Changing Conception and Practice of Public School Administration," Review of Research in Education, (1981) Vol. 9.

[10]K. Liethwood and D.J. Montgomery, "Methods Used in Developing and Validating a Profile of Growth in Principal Effectiveness," Paper presented at C.S.S.E., C.A.S.E.A. section (Guelph, 1984).

[11]Liethwood and Montgomery, p. 1.

[12]D.G. Marshall, (a) Principal Certification in Canada: Questions and Answers (Unpublished Research Project, Manitoba Department of Education, 1982).

[13]see for example, Peter Coleman, "Administrative Leadership, Change, and Training Programs Administrators", Canadian Journal of Education, 7:1, (1982).

or

D. Musella, "Improving the Selection of Principals", Canadian School Executive, 1:4 (1981), 8-11.

[14]Commonwealth Secretariat, p. 18-25.

[15]D.G. Marshall, (a)

[16]J.G. March, "American Public School Administration: A Short Analysis," School Review, (February, 1978).

[17]See for example, E. Brainard, The Colorado Department of Education and the Development of School District Based Administer Renewal Program, (Colorado State Department of Education, Denver: ERIC ED114993, 1975).

or

Robin, Farquhar, "Recent Developments in the Professonal Preparation of Principals," Studies in Educational Administration, (June 11, 1978).

[18]Leithwood and Montgomery, p. 4.

[19]Leithwood and Montgomery, p. 37.

[20]Boyd and Crowson, p. 326.

[21]Hunt.

[22]J.W. Getzels, "Problems Finding and Research in Education Administration," Problems Finding in Educational Administration, ed. G.L. Immegart and W.L. Boyd, (Toronto: Lexington Books, 1979).

[23]Norman Sprinthall and Lois Thies-Sprinthall, "The Teacher as an Adult Learner: A Cognitive Developmental View, Staff Development, (82nd NSSE Yearbook, University of Chicago, 1983).

[24]Sprinthall and Thies-/Sprinthall, p. 18,19,20.

25 [26]See for example, L. Cunningham, "The Principal in the Learning Community," National Elementary Princial, 53.5, (1975).

or

B. Nissett and R.W. Faunce, Needs Assessment of Administrators Professional Development, (Minneapolis: Minnesota Department of Research and Evaluation).

or

F. Lutz and R. Ferrante, Emergent Practices in Continuing Education of School Administrators, (Illinois: UCEA Interstate Printers, 1977).

[27]See for example, David G. Marshall and Earle H. Newton, Critical Decisions in the Professional Preparation and Development of School Administrators in Developing Areas, (Occassional Paper #3, Centre for International Education and Development, University of Alberta, 1983).

David G. Marshall, "Educational Administration in Developing Areas: A Role for Canadian Scholars" (paper presented at C.S.S.E. Conference, Ottawa, 1982) Canadian and International Education, Vol. 13, No. 1 (1984).

David G. Marshall and Earle H. Newton, "The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas: What Knowledge is of Most Worth," (submitted for publication, 1985).

[28]M. Jorgensen Kiggundu and T. Hatsi, "Administrative practice and theory in development countries: A synthesis," A.S.Q., (1983) 66-84.

[29]Geert Hofsteade, Cultures Consequences: International Differences in Work Related Values, (Beverly Hill: Sage, 1980).

[30]Thomas Wiggins, "Emergent Shifts in Administrative Training Models in the Americas," Paper presented at 1st Interamerican Congress on Educational Administration (Brasilia, Brazil: 1979).

[31]See for example, S.G. Redding and T.A. Marty-Johns, "Paradigm Differences and their Relation to Management," in Organizational Functioning in a Cross Cultural Perspective, ec. G.W. England et al (Kent State University Press, 1979).

[32]Kiggundu, p. 66-84.

[33]Andrews, p. 280.

NATURE AND NEEDS OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION IN THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

by

Errol Miller
Faculty of Education
University of West Indies
Mona,
Jamaica

Introduction

The education sector is integrally related and profoundly bound to politics, social stratification, culture and the economy. This is a generalization that could be applied to education where ever it is found. The fulcrum of the inter-play of these forces resides firmly in educational administration. Through educational administration these inter-locking factors fashion and shape the educational system. The variety of ways in which education is administered in different countries is testimony to the multitude of permutations and combinations of the ways in which education, politics, sociology and economics can mutually influence each other.

The Commonwealth Caribbean consists of sixteen different countries, each treasuring its distinctive features and jealous of its sovereignty. While the uniqueness of each country cannot be denied, the fact of their common history, culture, language, social and economic structure is equally incontestable. The commonalities sufficiently outweigh the distinctive features to make it possible to speak of the Commonwealth Caribbean countries as a common grouping or as a region. The interplay of political, social and economic forces and their impact on education tend to follow similar trends and patterns. It is therefore meaningful to attempt to describe in broad and general terms the nature of the educational administration in the Commonwealth Caribbean.

The general thesis of this paper is that education in general and the educational administration in particular, is a function of the interplay of social, political and economic forces operative in each society. From this point of view therefore, any description of the nature and needs of educational administration in the Commonwealth Caribbean must commence with some broad descriptions of the ways in which social, political and economic forces have been linked to the educational system and with its administration.

Political Themes

The major political themes in education in the Commonwealth Caribbean can be briefly described as follows:

a) Liberation -

The aboriginal theme of Caribbean education has been liberation. It is also by far the strongest and most persistent. Its first advocates and benefactors were the poor whites, during the slave society, who failed to make it rich and were virtually trapped in the West Indian colonies. Invariably, their more fortunate peers had a posthumous conscience concerning this entrapment and established the liberation policy in their wills, which provided sums of money to serve as endowments through which schools could be established. The expectation was that education would be the means of redeeming the children of the poor whites from the fate that had befallen their parents. The next groups to approach education from this liberation perspective were the Jews of Jamaica and the brown people of all Caribbean countries. They fought vigorously and actively for access to the endowed schools. In order to enhance and consolidate such social gains as they had made they fought for and eventually were granted their civil rights between the last decade of the eighteenth century. An integral part of the struggle for

their civil rights was access to education in order to help them overcome the limitations and constraints on their own human development conditioned by the structures of the society.

No where is the liberation theme more clearly demonstrated then in the provision of mass of elementary education in 1834 for the children of ex-slaves consequent upon the abolition of slavery. The general expectation of the slaves and their supporters was that they, through education, would be able to achieve their hopes and aspirations like all other disadvantaged groups had done before. In latter years the more recent immigrant groups of Chinese, Indians, Syrians and Lebanese, have all used the education system in similar ways.

At first the liberation theme was so diametrically opposite to the focus of Caribbean societies that it could not be accommodated in the official policies and provisions of the state. It is not accidental therefore, that education was provided by charitable organizations and the church before it became the responsibility of the state. Given the history of slavery and colonialism in the Caribbean it is not surprising that the liberation theme should be both strong and deep rooted historically. It is the theme that all disadvantaged groups in the society's history have used in their struggles to break the shackles of restraint, constraint and limitations placed on their human development by the circumstances of the society's social and economic organization.

In modern times this liberation theme is manifested in the populist approach to education by current politicians in all Caribbean countries. The stated intention of all modern day politicians in the Caribbean is to provide more and better education especially for the disadvantaged groups within the society. This has accounted for the remarkable consistency of domestic policy in which each succeeding regime seeks to improve and build on the educational policies of the previous regime. To this point in time succeeding regimes have not fundamentally dismantled the educational structures and provisions that it was bequeathed by its predecessors. The general impression given is that in fact each political regime is stumbling over the other to do more and better for education than the previous regime. One has to understand this pattern not in terms of the enlightened educational understanding of the political directorate but rather in terms of the strength of the liberation theme as a vote getter Caribbean politics.

The liberation themes translated into various policies has traditionally been related to academic education oriented to external examinations with international currency. The type of education sponsored by this theme is not related to functional economic considerations but rather, to that which will confer on the individual the greatest social status respect and recognition and will gain him access to education at the highest levels inside and outside of Caribbean society. This is not to say that an academic orientation is valued in and for itself but rather, it is the type of education which the ruling classes within the Caribbean have accorded the highest recognition.

There is no theme that has been more consistently criticized and opposed than the liberation theme. Its survival has not depended upon the strength of the attack but rather, on two essential elements.

1. that it is related to the type of education that the powerful have prescribed for their own children, and

2. that it has had the weight of support in terms of the numbers of people in the society who look to education as the means of changing their disadvantaged status, in removing the injustices that have constrained their lives and in according them greater life chances.

b) Production -

It is the theme that has motivated participation in the educational system by the mass of Caribbean peoples.

The second major political theme in Caribbean education has been production. By the production theme one is speaking about relating education to the economic opportunities that are available in Caribbean society and producing the numbers of skilled persons needed to fill the manpower needs of the economy. This emerged as a significant theme right after the emancipation of slavery and the establishment of mass elementary education. It has been the favourite theme of those who command the economy. Its rallying cry has been more technical skills oriented education to fill the manpower needs of commerce, industry and agriculture. The interest groups in the society who have been most vocal and articulate concerning this theme historically, have been people who have advocated it not for their own children but rather, as the theme that should serve as the guiding light for the children of the masses. This inherent contradiction has always weakened the arguments presented. In large measure, the mass of Caribbean society who have regarded the production theme as the fall back position. It is that which one accepts when the liberation aspirations have not been successful.

By and large, the state has always been more comfortable with policies related to this theme than to the liberation theme. However, successful implementation of policies related to this theme has only come in post-war developments in the Caribbean education.

By and large, modern Caribbean governments have all embraced this theme within the context of the development scenario. The general tenets of this approach is that the continued development of Caribbean economies depend to great extent upon the training of skilled technicians and agricultural workers by the school system. The function of the school is that of supplying the manpower needs of the economy. Most of the development aid to education has been justified by this scenario. In the main, funding agencies have not provided aid to education to support the liberation theme but rather, the production theme.

The focus of policies predicated on the production theme is the training of persons from the school system with marketable skills within the existing Caribbean economies. By and large, it has targeted the middle and lower level occupational tasks within the economy. The examination emphasis is not as great, neither is there any over-riding interest in producing individuals who have skills at a level which would give them international currency. The major emphasis is supplying the local manpower needs of Caribbean economies.

It is interesting to note that almost every educational development planned by the state using the development or production theme as its basis have had to cope with the influence of the liberation theme. For example, Technical High Schools established to train technicians has increasingly focused on educating candidates for engineering and other higher level occupational pursuits.

It is interesting to note that political regimes when campaigning for office usually make promises concerning educational policies which cater to the liberation aspirations of the mass of the population, yet as government, invariably, they develop and implement policies which is predicated on the basis of the production theme. The problem for educational administration and educational administrators is the adjustment of those policies so that they cater to some of the social demands of the major consumers of education in the society. While the provision of education is usually based on the production theme, participation in education by the large mass of Caribbean peoples is on the basis of the liberation theme. The tension between these two perspectives are evident at all levels of educational administration of education in Ministries of education, the liberation theme tends to dominate the institutional administration of education in schools.

c) Pacification -

A third theme around which educational policies have evolved is that of pacification. It is not as prominent or pronounced as either the liberation or the production themes. Nevertheless, it is a major theme. The pacification theme emerged with the concern of the ruling classes that in the establishment of mass elementary education consequent upon the abolition of slavery. They support elementary schools because they perceived education as the means to prevent the ex-slaves from taking revenge on their former brutal masters. The slaves society was maintained by coercion. With overt coercion being removed officially social peace and order had to be maintained by some other mechanism. The planter class saw education as the mechanism which could achieve these ends.

The amelioration measures which have followed major social upheavals in the Caribbean have always included educational reforms. For example, after the Morant Bay Rebellion in Jamaica in 1865, the new Governor, Sir John Peter Grant, instituted major educational reforms designed to alleviate the concern of the black population about the quality of education being provided them. Similarly, after the 1938 riots in the Caribbean, the Morin Commission of Enquiry recommended a number of educational reforms.

Developments in modern Caribbean societies have also included the pacification themes. For example, the introduction of free education at the secondary and

university levels, within the Caribbean have been instituted by the political directorate of free independent societies to convince them of the concern and commitment of the political directorate to the concerns and interests of the poor

The pacification theme has been concerned with three major facets of education. First, access to education. It has always emphasized gaining greater access on the part of disadvantaged groups to education especially those aspects and levels of education that traditionally have been reserved for the privileged classes. While the concessions made to disadvantaged groups have never fully met the criteria of social justice, to date they have been sufficient to convince those groups that progress is being made on their behalf. The second concern has been quality. The promise to provide quality education for the children of disadvantaged groups is a perennial one in Caribbean education. While this promise has been more honoured in the breach than any other it has kept recurring. The third concern is that of content. To ensure that the content of education in terms of what is taught in the curriculum in schools is as noncontroversial as possible. It is interesting to note that while Marcus Garvey is widely revered as a National Hero in Jamaica and his exploits celebrated every year with suitable public functions the philosophy and opinions of Marcus Garvey is not on the curriculum of any subject in any school. by and large, this work of Marcus Garvey is as subversive in the 1980's to Jamaican society as it was in the 1920's. Hence, while the society reveres the man in nostalgic terms from the safe distance of the intervening decades, it scrupulously avoids the consideration and study of his message in the content of subjects studied in schools.

d) Interplay of Themes -

These policy themes are not equally exclusive. In fact, there is constant interplay and inter-relationship between them. Nonetheless, they are not exactly interchangeable. Hence, at times an administrator has to choose between being an agent of the state, and accomplice of the student or an apologist of the status quo. These choices are never easy and like all choices they have their consequences.

Stratification and Socialization Patterns

There are a number of social patterns which constitute parameters within which the educational system operates. By and large, educational administration have accepted these parameters and have worked within them. For the purposes of this paper, it is necessary to identify and discuss two of these patterns.

a) Social Stratification and the Structure of the Educational System -

The structure and organization of the educational system mirrors and reflects the social stratification of Caribbean societies. The general tendency is for the children of the privileged classes to attend fee paying infant and preparatory schools while the children of the disadvantaged groups attend the public primary schools free. At the secondary level, by and large, the children of the privileged classes are disproportionately congregated in the high status segments

of the secondary system following largely academic programmes in prestigious schools. This is notwithstanding the various selection procedures that have been established in almost all Caribbean countries. On the other hand the children of the disadvantaged groups are disproportionately skewed in their representation in technical and vocational programmes or conversely, in programmes dealing with functionally literacy offering a level of education just marginally above basic primary education.

Notwithstanding these inequities in the social structure and the social composition of the population of various types of schools, the educational system is the major means of upward social mobility for the disadvantaged groups. Throughout the Caribbean greater opportunity is given to lower class girls than to lower class boys. This is related to both child-rearing practices in Caribbean societies and also to the selection procedures at eleven or twelve plus.

The major broker institutions as far as mobility is concerned is the high school and the teachers' college. Teachers' college or normal schools have a history of close to 150 years in the Caribbean. Similarly, high schools can date their existence to just over a hundred years. These institutions through different mechanisms are largely responsible for the emergence of a black middle class within Caribbean societies. More recently, the broker role has extended to UWI but to date, there has been little empirical analysis of the role of the University in this regard.

Increasingly, the society has accorded to the school the responsibility for allocation occupational opportunities. The examination system and the subjects students are allowed to sit are the major mechanisms by which this role is performed. Over the last decade, there has been a smooth transfer of the examining function from Cambridge and London Universities to the Caribbean Examinations Council. While the examining bodies may have changed the basic relationships and mechanisms remained in tact.

b) Culture and Socialization -

Given the fact that the educational system in the Commonwealth Caribbean developed during the period of British colonialism, it is not surprising that the culture of the school has always been distinctly British. Although the British were always a minority within Caribbean society and a small one at that, by virtue of their position as the kiss and kin of the colonizing power their culture was dominant in Caribbean society. As far as the school was concerned British culture in terms of language etiquette and attitudes was proper, good and respectable. All other cultures especially the creole culture was improper, bad and disreputable. Accordingly, they should be left at the gate of the school and not brought inside. Where for example, an unfortunate child forgot to leave his creole culture at the gate and brought it into the school, such an infraction was an appropriate reason for disciplinary action.

Because the privileged classes always imitated the British overlords, the culture of the school was merely reinforcing their own efforts to be anglocized. As such the school played a supporting socialization role with respect to the home. In the case of the child from the disadvantaged groups, process and promotion

through the educational system depended on the degree to which the child was successful in shedding his own native culture and adopting the anglocized patterns. This invariably, was one of the requirements of upward social mobility. This was the price that had to be paid. This was to be reflected in language, etiquette, attitude and deportment.

With the coming to Independence of Caribbean states and the departure of the British, Caribbean identity has increasingly been located in the creole culture. That which is distinctly Jamaican, Barbadian, Trinidadian, St. Lucian, St. Vincentian, Dominican, Kittian, Bahamian, Guyanese, Belizean, is in fact, the culture of the folk language, etiquette, attitudes and deportment. While this is adequately accepted in plays for cultural evenings festivals and carnivals, it is not to this point reflected in the mainstream culture of the school. The remarkable resistance and resilience of traditional British culture as the mainstream culture of the school is explained by a remarkably simple mechanism. Contrary to the propoganda of certain elements within the Caribbean, it is not maintained by the conspiracy of the ruling group through some devious mechanism.

In most societies probably seventy or eighty per cent of the teaching force for example, at the primary level is recruited from rural lower class young people. Through a combination of high school and teachers' colleges, they have been afforded upward social mobility. Their teacher status makes them new recruits into the middle class. It is well documented that the most militant and zealous defenders of any cause are the most recent and newest recruits. In addition, the administrators at both the national and institutional level, as well as many members of the political directorate, are themselves new recruits to the upper middle and upper classes of the Caribbean societies. By virtue of their large numbers and control for the system, administrators and teachers together, without conscious deliberations insist on the children following the traditional practices which they have only recently overcome and mastered.

Yet there is sufficient contradiction and paradox in the situation to cause serious cracks and to create increasing the widening gaps. This has led to more and more teachers and administrators willing to permit some variant of the creole culture into the culture of the school in certain controlled and limited ways.

Economic Relationships

Historically, it was accurate to speak of the delinquent state as far as financial support for education was concerned. In its aboriginal form the state left education to private individuals and the church. Caribbean Colonial states almost had to be coerced into funding education. Even when this responsibility was assumed the concern was always to fund education at the lowest cost possible which would allow the system to function in some fort of a fashion.

In the modern Caribbean only three of four states have managed to shed the cloak of delinquency - Barbados, British Virgin Island, Bahamas and possibly, Trinidad and Tobago. In the other states the provision for education in terms of numbers of children to be schooled and the quality of that schooling is below what could reasonably be regarded as adequate. One is here referring to number of school buildings and their adequacy in terms of furniture and equipment; the provision

of books and teaching materials, support services assistance to poor children with the wherewithal to attend school; the adequacy of teachers' salary and the level and standard of training of the teaching force and the support for the instruction programme, including systematic and comprehensive supervision and evaluation has never been met on a system-wide basis although particular schools have achieved excellent standards.

Although some recent governments in some Caribbean countries have tried to reverse the historical patterns the accumulative effect of centuries of neglect cannot be readicated overnight. One unfortunate aspect is that the expectations by some members of the political directorate and the public at large, for spectacular improvements have been unrealistic, given the circumstances and the nature of education itself. This has led to disillusionment even among strong advocates of the primary of education. The spending of vast sums of money on education over a short period of time cannot in and by itself reverse deep rooted and entrenched patterns. This is one of the dilemmas educational administration faces in the allocation of resources to education. Can it refuse some of the resources allocated to education in times of plenty? If all is accepted, can it meet the expectations of the providers?

Bahamas and Barbados constitute interesting divergence form the general stereotype of the delinquent state. These states could not be reasonably labelled delinquent with respect to the provision for education. Bahamas, however, is a society in which education is devalued when compared to status of its currency in other Caribbean countries. The standards achieved are certainly not commensurate with the provision and in often below that achieved in other Caribbean states.

The usual explanations given is that almost all students graduating from school are assured of reasonably remunerative employment, hence the drive and the motive for high achievement in education to gain employment is not htere. Given the relatively high standard of living in the Bahamas, this explanation appears plausible. It is also necessary to note the relative ease with which Bahamian can obtain visa to the United States.

The case of Bahamas seems to indicate a curvilinear type of relationship between educational provisions and achievements and the economy. Great deficiency and sufficiency can produce the same results for different reasons. Educational Administrators in both setting may be facing the same problems but need to address them in entirely different ways.

Barbados contrasts both with the stereotypes of deficiency and devaluation. Educational standards in Barbados are among the highest in the region and so too is the standard of living. The question becomes, what makes Barbados different from the other states? Certainly the answer is not economic. Certainly the demands and challenges to educational adminstrators are different.

In most Caribbean states times of economic boom are correlated with periods in which new developments take place in education. These can take a variety of forms including development to expand the system and to improve quality. Conversely, time of economic recession correlates with period of retrenchment in

education. The net result is a cyclical pattern of solving and unsolving educational problems in different eras and the recurrence of both problems and solutions.

Certainly the economic clearly alternatively favours those who would wish to change the status quo and those who would wish to retain it. Economic prosperity is the green light for change, recession, the red light signalling reversal. Clearly this interplay of economic and political forces places educational administration in the crossfire of opposing interest groups in the society.

Traditions in Educational Administration

There are a number of almost entrenched traditions within educational administration in the Commonwealth Caribbean. It is important to identify some of these.

a) Inservice Apprenticeship -

The majority of educational administrators in the Caribbean are prepared for their administrative responsibilities informally through a system of inservice apprenticeship. Invariably, persons selected for administrative positions in the school system have been teachers for a number of years. One of the unwritten qualifications for an educational administrator in the Caribbean is that he must have had a number of years teaching experience. This takes primacy over professional training of the teacher since some untrained graduates are able to move into administrative positions without professional training as teachers but with years of experience in the classroom. The unwritten assumption is that in order to administer education one must be familiar with it from the perspective of the teacher and must have school and classroom experience. In most instances teachers get their first administrative experience in acting positions when the substantive holders of posts are off on leave or out of the school system for some time. Through these temporary interludes they get a chance to be exposed to the responsibilities and at the same time those who make the decision with respect to proportion to administrative positions are given the opportunity to observe the teacher in administrative positions. Ideally, persons promoted to the positions of principals and vice-principals are successful teachers who have won the confidence of the peers and that of those in authority. This holds true for the posts of Head of Department, Principals, Vice-Principals.

Ministries of Education usually recruit people for their central administrative functions from the ranks of the teaching profession. This is true whether it is officers for curriculum evaluation or for territorial supervision. In many instances these officers are first exposed to Ministry responsibilities through projects and special operations and also involvement of various Ministry Committees. Through a process of informal observation and the assignment of specific tasks the Ministry then recruits such persons into substantive positions as chief education officers, permanent secretaries and other top administrators within the system.

Invariably, where administrators receive formal training in Educational Administration it usually comes in the context where those individuals are already occupying administrative posts. The Caribbean has not yet moved to the position where a pool of persons trained in the administration is created within the system and then the various opportunities arise for them to be promoted to administrative posts. This pattern of preparation of administration is strongly biased in favour of the administrators continuing and perpetuating the status quo. It virtually ensures that the persons promoted are "safe". In other words, might bring about improvements but not radical change. It also has no mechanism in and by itself to introduce new ideas that are not already informing the basis of operation within the system. It also ensures that the persons who are promoted and have the greatest facility in negotiating the structure are those with some amount of commitment to that structure.

It is necessary to note that the transition from school administrator to national administrator within the Ministry of Education calls for certain significant changes. Invariably, at the school level the liberation themes in terms of policy and practice are most strongly manifested because of its closeness of contact with parents and students. On the other hand, at the level of the Ministry of Education production and the pacification themes, invariably dominate. The person making the transition from school administration to national administration is called upon the make certain adjustments and accommodations in order to be able to successfully negotiate the national administrative structure.

b) Community Leader -

The successful school administrator in the Caribbean is invariably also a community leader. His responsibilities and activities certainly does not cease with the school. Although the specific type of community activity with which the principal is engaged varies considerably within the Caribbean according to the type of commuity in which he is located, principals and head teachers are involved in church work, in agricultural organizations, in youth programmes, adult education programmes, sports administration, politics, citizens associations and several other types of specific community activities.

This type of involvement on the part of school administrators is most visible and obvious where the school is located in a community with geographic and demographic boundaries clearly drawn. While one is not aware of any great body of empirical research the general impression is that the degree of involvement and quality of community service rendered by the principal or head teacher is positively related to his effectiveness to mobilize the community in ensuring acceptable standards of education within the school. Even where formal programmes of preparation exists for educational administrators, in many instances training in community leadership is not given the weight of emphasis commensurate with the degree to which principals have been involved in communities across the Caribbean. The longevity and strength of this tradition would seem to be sufficient to warrant community leadership training as an integral part of the preparation of educational administrators.

c) Role Model -

Teachers in general and principals in particular are expected by the vast majority of people in the Caribbean to be role models. This is to be true inside and outside of the school. The general stereotype is of a dignified modest living, self-sacrificing, strong, dedicated individual with the gift to perceive talent in others and the ability to inspire its development. It also includes that of the faithful, loyal, persistent idealist who at great expense to himself, is totally committed to the advancement of his students and his community. However, unrealistic these expectations may be, those who are able to satisfy them are accorded high respect despite the difficulties thay may have in surviving the harsh economic realities of the real world. Teachers, principals and general members of the public are equally responsible for the development and continuation of this stereotype. Many principals have not been able to comply with the requirements and have attempted to break the mold. Invariably this is followed by some social astrocism and loss of respect and in some cases, effectiveness. Those who have been able to meet the stereotype have in most instances been accorded great accolades but have been consigned almost to poverty in their old age unless they had some other means of support during their teaching career.

d) Autonomy -

There are some administrative structures within the Caribbean which permits educational administrators especially at the secondary and tertiary levels of the educational system, a fair degree of autonomy. In the systems that permit this autonomy teachers are not civil servants, they are employed to boards which are appointed to run the schools and which have a legal status in law. Invariably in these systems the church continues to play an important role in the ownerships and/or management of the school system. In such systems, principals play an important role in the selection of staff, the selection of students, the expenditure of funds and the management systems that are employed to run the school. They are accountable to the board directly and only to the Ministry for financial and final appointments. The administration of education in systems which permit this degree of autonomy is of necessity different from systems in which such autonomy is not present.

e) Central Control

The tradition of central control is the parallel to the tradition of limited autonomy. Systems with this structure usually involve the Ministry owning and operating the majority of schools and with the teachers being civil servants. Selection of students, teachers, allocation of budget, promotions, transfers of principals and teachers, and the acquisition and distribution of supplies, are all centrally determined by the Ministry of Education. In systems structured on this basis of central control the role and functions of the administrators in the Ministry and in the school is based on a different set of relationships than in the system which permits a limited amount of autonomy.

f) Needs -

The needs of educational administration in the Commonwealth Caribbean arise from the interplay of policy themes, social patterns, economic relationships and educational traditions. One is here approaching the idea of needs from the point of view of those concerned with developing programmes for the formal preparation of administrators for the Caribbean. One can identify at least four different needs that should not be overlooked.

1. The need for description. It is necessary to have thorough and comprehensive descriptions of educational administration as it is being practised at the national and institutional levels in all Caribbean countries. There is almost the need for accurate and complete case studies. This could almost be regarded as baseline data from which different activities can be pursued.

2. Theoretical synthesis. From a base of accurate descriptions it should be possible to develop theory concerning administration emanating from the Caribbean experience. It could be that existing theory is already sufficiently powerful and capable of incorporating Caribbean experience in a meaningful and constructive way. But the possibility also exists that the specificity of the circumstances in which administrative theories have been developed are sufficiently at odds with Caribbean experience as to make the mere adoption of such theory not feasible. Conversely, it may be that the wide variety of experiences that make up the Commonwealth Caribbean is sufficient to generate a more universal and inclusive approach to administration theories which tend to reflect largely first world milieus. Whatever the specific situation, it would seem that there is the necessity for some theoretical synthesis that is both used at the professional academic level to understand the processes involved as well as at the practical level, to allow the practitioners to more perfectly understand the systems in which they are acting within that system.

3. Empirical analysis. The development of any set of theoretical assumptions is for the purpose of pursuing empirical analysis which will validate, modify or disprove the theoretical assumptions. The whole purpose is to create a body of knowledge that would help to provide a scientific basis to the art to educational administration.

It can be seen from the above that one had not taken and defined as a need any attempt to improve educational administration. One has taken the position that before improvement can meaningfully take place, one must understand the context and content of educational administration in the Caribbean. It could well be that educational administration in the Caribbean is functioning at its maximum level of efficiency given all the constraining circumstances that exist. It could also be that given the circumstances, this is the only way in which it can operate. It may be that administrators within the system currently are mere scapegoats of circumstances which they did not create or over which they have very minimal control. One has taken the position therefore, that before one can pursue with missionary zeal, improvements in efficiency and effectiveness, one must be able to give them some reasonable definition within the particular context and to understand more fully the variables than can be manipulated in producing such results. It would seem therefore, that the need for better understanding far supersedes the need for immediate action.

THE PROFESSIONAL PREPARATION OF SENIOR EDUCATION ADMINISTRATORS IN THE CARIBBEAN CONTEXT

by

Rudolph V. Goodridge
CARSEA, CCEA and UWI
Faculty of Education
Cave Hill Campus
University of the West Indies
Barbados

This paper outlines the historical evolution of the post of Chief Education Officer in Caribbean Education systems, looks at the demands on office holders over the last several years, and, against this background, suggests some of the areas which seem to merit attention in the preparation of senior professional officers/educational administrators in the English-speaking Caribbean in the foreseeable future.

The Evolution of the Post of Chief Education Officer

Around 1945, the chief administrators and supervisors in Caribbean educational systems were a small band of Directors of Education and rather more Inspectors of Schools who were responsible to local legislatures through Boards of Education for conduct of their countries' schools. Tremendous power was concentrated in the hands of these functionaries, chiefly with respect to the elementary schools. In a few cases, Inspectors of Schools combined supervisory duties in respect of elementary schools with the post of Headmaster of the local Grammar School, but where this was not the case, the Grammar School sat somewhere outside the Inspectors' control, except through their influence on its Governing Body.

It was against this background that Dr. Eric Williams could write around 1945, "Under the existing system in the British West Indies, primary education is distinct from secondary, and secondary from vocational. The Director of Education is responsible for the first, a commission for the second and possibly a board of industrial training for the third .... The establishment of a single authority will reduce confusion, make for a better articulated system and lend prestige to those types of education that are now disparaged."[1]

The Mayne Commission report[2], published in 1945 also recommended that there should be an officer "with the function of supervising education as a whole, who should have sufficient staff to free him from the more mechanical details of administration" and that there should be a Committee of Public Instruction whose function "should include the proper evolution of education policy to meet the economic and social needs of the community."

In the last 25 or 30 years, the search has been on in English-speaking Caribbean countries for a single educational authority which would make for a better articulated system in which educational policy would be evolved to meet the economic and social needs of the respective mini-states. In the earlier part of this period it was the Director of Education's responsibility to do so, but, for the most part, this scenario has been worked out under the Ministerial system of Government and some analysis of what this has meant to the role of the erstwhile Director of Education--now Chief Education Officer--is necessary.

Before the establishment of the Ministerial system, Directors of Education were left, for the most part, fully in charge of most of the administrative policy, personnel management and resource allocation in the educational system--particularly its elementary sector--as long as they did not disturb the balance

of power between the classes in respect of access to educational opportunity, and the socialization functions which schools were expected to perform. With the coming of the Ministerial system most of this changed. The Minister of Education assumed responsibility for framing the educational policy of the government and ensuring its effective execution under the general mandate of the policies of the political party to which the Minister belonged.

The development of the Ministerial system has also meant the sharing of responsibility not only in policy-making, but in certain aspects of system-management with a cadre of senior administrative officers led by the Permanent Secretary. Many Permanent Secretaries have assumed, or tried to assume, either through their own desire to demonstrate that they are the most important members of the administrative chain of command, or through direct encouragement from the Ministers of Education themselves, advisory or decision-making functions which Chief Education Officers assumed to be theirs--thereby making for a tense and often conflicting situation. In a few situations Ministers of Education have functioned as "super" Permanent Secretaries. The net result is that the Chief Education Officer has invariably functioned in an ill-defined and ambiguous situation.

In respect to broad policy formulation, Chief Education Officers have sometimes been regarded even by some Ministers of Education, as being mainly responsible for carrying out the educational policy framed by the Manifesto of the political party to which they belong, Cabinet or the National Planning Unit.

Within the Ministry of Education itself, the Chief Education Officer might find himself subordinate to senior administrative officers, i.e. Permanent Secretary and Deputy Permanent Secretary or to the Educational Planner of the Ministry of Education's Planning Unit on important matters of educational policy. With respect to the development of the tertiary level sector, the Principal of a tertiary level institution might make greater inputs into the development of educational policy for this sector than the Chief Education Officer. Chairmen of Secondary School Boards and of tertiary institutions might have as much direct access to the Minister and the Permanent Secretary as the Chief Education Officer himself on matters affecting these institutions. Yet, the public and the teaching profession tend to hold the Chief Education Officer and his senior professional colleagues responsible for the general direction of educational policy and major decisions taken by the Ministry of Education. As far as they are concerned it is these officers who advise the Minister of Education.

In some situations, Chief Education Officers are kept more or less to the functions of a supervisory nature or to administrative policy, which was traditionally a part of the role of the erstwhile Directors of Education. With the growth of more direct controls over all aspects of the educational system by the Ministry of Education, there has been no automatic growth of functions of Chief Education Officers throughout the region in respect of all aspects of the system. From Government to Government, Minister to Minister,

Permanent Secretary to Permanent Secretary, the Chief Education Officer, despite being named as the Chief Executive in most Education Acts, finds himself having to lay claim to and defend his professional "turf". Where the problem is most acute, it would be tempting to speculate whether the perception which the Chief Professional Adviser brought to the post, or the way in which he functions, or his inability to escape, being consumed by routine functions, might not be contributory factors.

Ironically, in at least one case where the Chief Education Officer was seen by an Opposition political party to be in full control of the system, the diminution of the powers of that officer was made a platform issue during an election campaign. It is also worth noting that in about four instances, where there was a temporary fusion of the post of Permanent Secretary and Chief Education Officer, it was the Chief Education Officer who assumed both posts, though it is by no means certain that those who made the decision saw the post of Permanent Secretary as being the one which was in abeyance. Even in 1985, the question has been raised, in a number of territories, whether the post of Chief Education Officer is really necessary.

The point of the above is that there is little consensus across Ministries of Education in the Caribbean about the role of the Chief Professional Officer, except that there are important management and supervisory functions he must perform in relation to the primary and secondary schools. His role in respect of policy evolution and many aspects of the decision-making process is somewhat more tenuous. Clearly though, there have been cases over the last few years where Chief Education Officers with high levels of technical knowledge, a strong professional image, sound management skills and well honed political skills have made a difference, but we should not underestimate the complexity of the situation in which many of these officers have functioned.

Profiles of Chief Education Officers

A look at the background of chief Education Officers in Barbados and seven Eastern Caribbean territories might be, at least, instructive and suggestive of reasons why these senior education administrators have not always been perceived as being central to policy and decision-making in their respective territories. Based on the information available to the writer, of the 28 Chief Education Officers who have held office in the Eastern Caribbean over the last 20 years, at least 19 have come to this office via primary teaching experience, Headship of a Primary School and the Inspectorate of Schools, four via secondary school teaching, secondary Headships and the Inspectorate. Another five have been secondary school masters. Of the Chief Education Officers who held office during the last two decades, about 12 took up their posts without first degrees and most of the 28 had no formal training in educational administration at the Master's degree level at the time that they became Chief Education Officer.

Of this group of Chief Education Officers, in addition to their primary or secondary teaching experience, about five had also worked as Lecturers in Teachers' Colleges or as Teachers' College Principals, one as a Lecturer in a University and few, if any, in any other form of tertiary education. About six had no previous experience working in a Ministry of Education.

Essentially therefore, this group had, based on their successful teaching experience either at the Primary or Secondary level, been promoted to some form of administrative post and had worked their way up to the post of Chief Education Officer. Few had adequate academic or professional preparation and many had limited experience working at high levels of the public service--which often put them at a disadvantage in some aspects of public service administration when compared with their administrative colleagues. Their main advantage was knowing the schools from the inside and having mastered some of the craft of administration--both of which are of tremendous value to the senior education administrator. While no special claims are being made for graduate level training, it must be borne in mind that in the Caribbean setting most administrators function in an environment in which there is limited access to the books and journals which might make up for lack of formal graduate training and little informed public discussion on professional issues.

No firm conclusions can be drawn from these profiles, except that little in the training and experience of many of these senior administrators had prepared them adequately for the wide-ranging roles they would be expected, or would find it necessary, to perform. For the most part, even where their experience was useful, they invariably found their knowledge and skills somewhat deficient and worse, that the pressures of office left them little time for reading or for attending short courses which are essential to professional development on the job.

Those who were fortunate enough to bring or to acquire at some stage in their careers, a sound professional and administrative preparation found that they had to use this "capital" for a substantial portion of their careers. The occasional conference or seminar may have helped, but the time for follow-up was extremely limited. The opportunity for continuing professional development is therefore somewhat limited.

Given the rapid turnover of Ministry of Education staff in some territories, the pressures of working in Ministeries, a salary structure which often fails to attract really able and experienced professionals, and the ease with which potentially good senior education administrators seem to get promoted to the general administration stream of the public service, recruits for this post in most territories in the forseeable future will perhaps come with first degrees, and with some academic preparation in education or educational administration at the Master's level, but with limited on-the-job experience at high levels of the Ministry of Education. Few seem likely to come to the post of Chief Education Officer having developed important skills of the craft of educational administration at the system level, knowledge of many aspects of the system, and the qualities of judgement which are critical to officers at the highest level.

The Demands on the Chief Education Officer

The demands on the professional knowledge and administrative and supervisory skills of the Chief Education Officer as well as on his professional-political relationships have increased significantly over the last 20 years. His has been the task of dealing with the increased demand for educational provision, improved access to educational opportunity, closer linkage of education and socio-economic development and its implications for curriculum reform, development of technical institutions and adult and non-formal education. Teachers and their representatives have kept the system under pressure for better supervisory techniques and improved personnel management, to keep in step with the changing industrial climate in our societies. In addition, there has been pressure for terms and conditions more in accord with the I.L.O. conventions and with those of teachers in school systems in more developed countries.

Much curriculum development activity, including myriad curriculum development projects, have strained the absorptive capacity of the systems he manages and taxed his coordinating ability. External aid agencies are everywhere; and this sometimes is a mixed blessing. As has been well said[3] "The poorer the country, the more it depends on the outside world for accomplishing even modest development objectives, and this dependence, which is normally on multiple actors, tends to get in the way not only of coherent planning but also of consistently implementing that which has been planned." Amidst the many pressures on his time, the many conferences and discussions on projects, the Chief Education Officer's problem is how to keep on top of the system and to direct its mainstream functions.

In the foreseeable future there will be pressure towards reform in areas we had come to take for granted, the organization of the school day, the length of the school day itself, teacher utilization and disciplinary procedures in schools. In some countries and at some levels of the system, parents will try to exert more pressure on school management and will seek to enforce their legal rights. The Chief Education Officer will be under increasing pressure to assure principals and teachers of their rights in this new situation in which it sometimes appears that only the parents and the students have rights.

Indications are that issues will continue to include the relevance of curricula and of the educational system, questions of equity and access, the role of science and technology in the country's overall development, and the further expansion and/or modernization of secondary and post-secondary education. The relationship of the University of the West Indies to the rest of the tertiary level system will figure prominently in deliberations about the relevance of sectors of the educational system.

More concern will be expressed about the costs of education, and the Education sector will have to compete for resources with Health and Infrastructure development rather more than in the past. Educational policy will come under

greater public scrutiny and as the pressures for accountability increase there are likely to be even stronger tendencies towards centralization and bureaucratization than at present. For the good of education, Chief Education Officers now and in the future will need to have the strength to be bulwarks against the monolithic tendencies of the present era.

Politicians, Trade Unions, the Business Community, Teachers' Unions, Parents, Students, other interest groups and the media can be expected to try to have a greater say in educational policy and in the way in which that policy is implemented. This is to be expected, for education is, by any definition, an intensely political matter. It is about the allocation of social status and privilege, the allocation of public resources and the question of social control.[4]

In fact, many of the senior professional and administrative personnel need to appreciate, rather more than seems to have been the case in the past, that the business of education is about political choices, resource related conflict, and that the educational system depends on a wide and complex set of political conditions. Some senior education administrators find the resulting environment in which they function bewildering, and must be helped to deal with the new dynamics and with issues which have the potential of becoming a major source or object of social and political conflict.

Roles and Functions of Chief Education Officers: Implications for Training

The foregoing should at least help us to put the roles and functions of the Chief Education Officer in perspective; to recognize the implications for his initial and continuing preparation; and, perhaps also, to recognize those areas in which training per se might have a limited impact.

Clearly, we are dealing with a functionary who must have a wide range of professional knowledge and skills in a wide variety of areas. It is not that the same high level of competence can be expected in fields as diverse as School Organization and Management, Curriculum Development, Measurement and Evaluation, Educational Technology, School Business Management, School Architecture, School Mapping and Public Service Personnel Management practices; but the Chief Education Officer must have a solid core of professional knowledge from which to tender sound professional advice, and he must have a sufficient working knowledge of a large number of fields which impinge on his job for him to enter into fruitful working relationships with a wide variety of specialists and to make sound recommendations based on their specialist advice.

At the very least, the Chief Education Officer is the chief professional adviser; personnel manager; human resource development officer; chief developer of administrative policy; educational planning and implementation officer; decision-maker; manager of the system's material and human resources; coordinator of the educational system; programme developer; organizational developer; educational reformer and manager of change.

Today's Chief Education Officer must have a fundamental understanding of the relationship between education and socio-economic development. He must understand the political dynamics of educational policy and planning since he must plan an important role in the educational system's responsiveness to new demands on it. He must understand the role of educational planning in the decision-making and implementation process, as well as the constraints--some political--and difficulties in the implementation of a given educational plan. He must understand how political imperatives dictate the ways in which both planning and implementation proceed and that "the true genius of enlightened educational planning lies in how closely and effectively technical skills and political insights can be brought to bear upon the achievement of a given set of objectives."[5] He must be aware of the intersectoral nature of development planning and education's dependence for its success on a number of other social institutions. In the preparation of Chief Education Officers in the Caribbean, priority attention must be given to their understanding of educational planning and development in small states.

As the chief professional officer, the Chief Education Officer must be a stimulator of professional development throughout the education service. He is the guardian of sound educational values, the chief protector of the image of the teaching profession and the builder and restorer of its flagging morale. One of his main tasks is to promote the qualitative improvement of the educational system. He must be able to build bridges between the teaching profession or the teachers' unions and the government of the day. He must be a buffer between the political directorate and subordinate staff in the Ministry of Education as well as between principals and teachers. He is the chief liaison officer with School Boards, the public and other external agencies.

One important aspect of his business is communication. "Talk" is his "work." He must be able to argue cases successfully within the Ministry of Education and without. He must maintain a network of relationships with individuals and groups in the school system as well as in the environment.[6]

His communication and interpersonal skills must be highly developed. He must be a mediator, par excellence. He will have to spend considerable amounts of time trying to reconcile conflicting goals and competing views and interests and intervening in situations to achieve harmonious relations. He must be skilled at "working at the junction between politics and a profession." His task is to "interpret the one to the other;" to mediate between them; and "to facilitate the realisation of the visions of both worlds; so that each may be more nearly fulfilled."[7]

His ability to form coalitions, and his effectiveness in bargaining and persuasion will all be critical to his success. Many skills and great gifts are needed by senior education administrators in today's educational systems as well as great qualities of sensitivity and integrity plain "horse sense." Obviously some of these skills, professional dispositions and qualities are more easily trainable than others.

The Chief Education Officer's supervisory skills must be well developed and his managerial skills are just as critical, for he is the manager of the material and human resources of the national education system. It is important that he learns something about time management for he must not be consumed and exhausted by routine administration. He must find time to read, to think, to evaluate the programmes of the various educational institutions and their management, and to make critical interventions for the qualitative improvement of all aspects of the system. He is the system's main problem-solver and its main hope that it does not become too crisis oriented.

The foregoing should at least serve to sketch some of the comprehensive professional knowledge and the wide range of skills which training programmes should attempt to foster or which senior education administrators need to cultivate. Training can and must enlarge the administrator's perspective concerning the nature and problems of the educational enterprise, including the ethical dimensions of his job. It must offer conceptual frameworks for different aspects of the administrator's craft.[8]

As Arthur Blumberg has so powerfully argued, training must help the administrator, at whatever stage he undertakes that training, to understand the intellectual, behavioural and emotional baggage he brings with him and must help him to get a firmer grasp of his interpersonal and group behavioural style and diagnostic tendencies. "For," says Blumberg, "it is there (the administrators') perspective on the world (of education) after all that combines with their baggage and results in their behaviour."[9]

But given the wide range of knowledge and skills that we have argued for in today's senior education administrators in the Caribbean, and elsewhere, it is important that we do not lose our perspective on their training and preparation. Our first task must be to find effective ways of indentifying persons who have the qualities of intellect and personality, personal and professional commitment and capacity for further professional development which seem to be so vital for persons in such posts. Without being deterministic, we should pay attention to Blumberg's comment that much of what a person will be as a senior education administrator he already is long before formal preparation for that position occurs. Training should not be expected to remedy fundamental defects in intellect or character in those who are sselected for these posts.

Finally, we should not undervalue on-the-job experience in educational administration, especially for those persons with the "right" social orientation and capacity to learn from experience. Much of the craft of the administrator can best be learnt on the job, through guidance and from exposure to good role-models. Many qualities of judgement and political skills are learnt in the work setting, as Blumberg says, "very particularistically, at the work site."

REFERENCES

[1]Eric Williams, Education in the British West Indies, (New York: University Place Book Shop, 1951), p. 56.

[2]West India Royal Commission Report, Comd. 6607, H.M.S.O., (1945), Chap. VII, Section 100.

[3]Hans Weiler, "The Political Economy of Education and Development", Prospects, Vol. XIV, No. 4, (1985), p. 473.

[4]Ibid., pp. 467-469.

[5]Ibid., p. 474.

[6]Pitner & Ogawa, "Organizational Leadership: The Case of the School Superintendent," Educational Administration Quarterly, Vol. 17, No. 2 (Spring 1981), p. 52.

[7]J.R.G. Tomlinson. The Profession of the Education Officer, (Dept. of Education Management, Sheffield City Polytechnic), p. we.

[8]Arthur Blumberg, "The Craft of School Administration and Some Other Rambling Thoughts," Education Administration Quarterly, Vol. 20, No. 4 (Fall 1984), p. 39.

[9]Ibid., p. 37.

Exposure at regional and international conferences can also help. So too can interaction with professionals in a wide variety of fields. Perhaps the case cannot be too strongly argued for senior professional officers to do short courses on-the-job to upgrade their knowledge and skills as the need arises, and more importantly, for them to be granted study leave every few years to recharge their professional batteries and to keep pace with the insights on educational development being generated by research within the Caribbean region and beyond it.

In conclusion, those of us who conduct short or long training courses for senior educational administrators at the system level must work to improve our knowledge of what it means to work in such a setting and the relevance of our programmes to the needs of those who daily try to cope with one of the most complex and demanding of jobs. We must also continue to work assiduously at improving the training methodologies we use, so as to have an even greater impact on the administrative behaviour of those we train.

MANAGEMENT INFORMATION SYSTEMS AS A TOOL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN THE COMMONWEALTH CARIBBEAN

by

John W. Heuvel
Director of Administration and Finance
Post-Secondary, Adult & Continuing Education Division
Education Manitoba, Province of Manitoba
Canada

Introduction

The general purpose of this symposium is to explore issues related to the professional preparation and development of educational administrators in developing areas generally and in the Commonwealth Caribbean in particular.

The issue that I wish to address is the development and use of management information systems as a tool for educational administrators. The purpose of the present paper is to provide some insight into the primary concepts of management information systems from a managerial perspective. This paper reflects this perspective and recognizes the contribution of MIS as a means rather than solely as an end.

The writer has travelled extensively in the Caribbean during the past 10 years and through a combination of formal and informal discussions, I have gained considerable insight into the problems facing educational administrators in developing countries. Clearly, this author recognizes that the realities of being a school administrator on a small Caribbean island are quite different from the realities of being a school administrator in Winnipeg, New York or London.

However, my casual observations have led me to the conclusion that educational administrators in the Caribbean can benefit from and in fact, need some form of MIS if they are to be prepared to meet the challenges and opportunities of the future.

The purpose of this paper is also to outline a form of MIS design and implementation that the author envisions as being attainable in a Caribbean educational setting.

The Information Society

One would have to be very much cut off from the world not to have heard that we in the developed countries are caught up in the information revolution. We have been told again and again that, because a new age is bursting upon us, we had better adjust to conditions of living that are radically different from those of the past. The message has more immediacy to those whose work has been changed by the latest wave of technology than to others to whom the world looks much the same as it did 20 years ago.

It is this author's opinion that this information revolution is having its largest impact on the field of Education and those of you who are involved in education in developing countries face a major challenge in this respect.

There can be no doubt about the speed-up. A paper published by the Science Council of Canada in 1982 says that the pace of technological advance in the past few years has only been matched by its absorption into the marketplace at a rate seven to ten times faster than previous technology. Nor can we discount the magnitude of the change: the same paper notes that since 1968, the power of computers has increased 10,000 times while the price of each unit of performance has decreased 100,000 times. Stanford University economist

Edward Steinmuller says that if the airlines had changed as much as computer-related technology, an airplane would now be carrying half a million passengers at 20 million miles an hour at less than a cent apiece.

When most people hear the word "information", they are inclined to think of television news and documentary programs. The fact that we are the best-informed--or at least the most massively-informed--society in history is an important feature of the information age. But the prophets of this age have much more than public information in mind when they say that our lives are coming to be ruled by information. It might be basically defined as "something told," and telling things to one another has become one of the leading preoccupations of a modern economy.

More people will work with information, fewer with goods

Because more and more information is being produced, it is taking up more and more of the energies of the society. A study done by Shirley Serafini and Michel Andrieu for the Canadian Federal Department of Communications in 1980 found that information workers then comprised at least 40 per cent of the Canadian labour force, compared with 29 per cent in 1951. They included as information workers all those who produce it (such as engineers and surveyors), process it (such as clerks and managers), distribute it (such as teachers and journalists), and run the technical system (such as machine operators and printers).

According to management sage Peter Drucker, information has become "the central capital, the cost centre, and the central resource of the economy". With the fading of the industrial age, in which most workers were concerned with producing goods, the number of information workers is bound to rise in inverse proportion to the number of workers directly engaged in goods production.

However, because the machines give the impression of "thinking" at stunning speeds, there is temptation to confuse the information they contain with knowledge. "Where is the knowledge we have lost in information?" T.S. Eliot wrote many years before the computer ever entered the scene. The answer is that information only becomes knowledge when it is sorted out, organized into a conclusion and checked for accuracy. (Royal Bank Newsletter, April 1985).

Much of the so-called information in computers is false, biased, incomplete or garbled. An over-reliance on computerized information helps to explain some of the classic blunders in budgeting and decision-making that so often make the news. The facts and figures in the machine must be subjected to the cool scrutiny of human logic and experience. When using them, we should keep in mind the occupational slogan of computer specialists: "Garbage in, garbage out."

We should never make the mistake of believing that these machines can do our thinking for us. Despite all the talk about "smart" computers, they do not have intelligence because they do not have ideas. Rather, they are aids to human thought which can take on repetitive, laborious and time-consuming mental tasks while men and women are left free to use their minds to do what they do most

usefully. The magic of the mind lies in its imaginative side--its intuition, originality and individuality. Machines do not have these qualities. They do not have the faculty of synthesizing facts and knowledge into that precious thing called wisdom. They have no critical instincts. They cannot exercise judgment. They cannot come together in discussions to produce intellectual results that are greater than each party to the discussion could achieve alone.

What they can do is provide the undigested raw materials of intellectual endeavour in a quick and convenient fashion. In the process, they are capable of helping us greatly in our striving towards the highest aspirations of mankind. The accessibility of these raw materials can help make our society more democratic and fair by giving everybody more of a voice in decision-making.

If you as educators want to have more of a voice in decision making and want to influence the decisions that affect your role as educational administrators, you will require more information and you will require it in a quick and convenient fashion and this is where a management information system can become one of your most effective tools.

Education as a Business

Throughout this presentation, you will find me making reference to business situations and terminology. I also use the terms educators and managers coterminously. I do that for a purpose because, in my judgment, education is a business and certainly, it is big business if one looks at the percentage of total Government spending that goes towards education. In my home Province of Manitoba 18 per cent of the total budget is allocated for education. Some people take exception when I make a business case for education, but I see nothing wrong with that. In fact, I think the sooner educators start putting forth business-like arguments to their political masters and using euphemisms like "bottom line," "cost benefit analysis," "multi year plan," etc. the sooner they will enhance their chances of ensuring they get their fair share of the budget. Earlier this year when I was in Barbados, I had the opportunity to discuss education matters with your late Prime Minister, the Honourable Tom Adams. One of the topics he was particularly interested in was management information systems. He expressed the view that more and more Governments need more information upon which to make decisions. He offered another very interesting viewpoint with respect to MIS that I think is pertinent to this discussion. He put forth the case for increased autonomy in the educational field. He saw this as being a necessary step particularly if we want to further the development of education leaders--Principals, Directors, Presidents as educational administrators. However, he cautioned that with increased autonomy comes increased accountability and that is where MIS can make a strong contribution. It provides the information, the monitoring vehicles for Chief Education Officers, Deputy Ministers and even Ministers so that they need only review summary information to ensure that accountability is maintained. Therefore, it seems to me that if you have no other motivation to embark on an MIS program, the chance to achieve greater autonomy is in itself a significant reward.

The Benefits of MIS within a Government Environment

As Governments face increasing demands on diminishing resources it is apparent that Government leaders want to allocate these resources into program areas where they can get the biggest payback. This indicates that individual departments within a Government are competing for these resources and, as many of you know, each year the competition becomes more intense.

In my view and experience, MIS is one of the best tools you can use in the pursuit of increased resources for your Department. MIS allows you to show how you have used your resources. You can argue your case on the basis on cost benefit analysis and you can do so on a confident basis. My experience has been that politicians respond to a well-documented presentation which indicates what you have done with the money allocated to you previously and what you intend to do with your requested level of funding. In modern day terms, it is referred to as return on investment. I can say without hesitation that the Colleges in Manitoba have benefited greatly from their use of MIS as a component of their budgetary presentation.

MIS in Perspective

While there have been many articles carried in business periodicals on the subject of Management Informations Systems, "MIS" is a phrase that is much misunderstood. In most institutions, it refers to the maintenance, either manually or by machine, of simple data banks. Simple data banks are filled with information about students, courses, faculty, finances and physical space. The adjective "simple" is misleading, however. For a data bank to be usable, a number of vexing problems must be solved, even if a bank is to be used in a single institution: first, definitions must be standardized so that all institutions collect data that is compatible with data from other institutions. Second, the data must be traceable for subsequent verification. Third, information must be condensed and focused so that the results have meaning and can truly clarify a problem or illuminate a solution. And fourth, the assumption behind the data must be explicit and clearly understood. (Mayhew)

Efficient and convenient comprehensive information systems, long kept from coming into being by a variety of obstacles, are now made possible by the concept of distributive processing and the technology of micro and mini-computer networks. Such systems can individualize instruction, group students efficiently, cut administrative costs, streamline program evaluation, support policy-making and foster more and better educational and psychological research. Abuses are also possible, including invasion of privacy, overreliance on data at the expense of reasoning or prompt action and overemphasis of education's scientific aspects. Nonetheless, as school populations grow and diversify and schools emphasize skills more and values less, education must become more systematized. Today, growing professionalism in administration, research and evaluation and improved organizational and educational theory facilitate scientific decision-making. Finally, recognizing that organizational decisions must relate to individual needs, we can use computers to improve learning and school operations.

A well-designed data system, for which information has been carefully collected and verified, can be of enormous help, even if it just provides straight answers to such questions as enrollments by course and the percentage of use of instructional space. It can be especially useful in providing for a variety of ratios that reveal the institution's situation. Appendix I provides a listing of ratios which, over time, can tell a good deal about the health of the institution.

Successful information sub-systems have been developed and used for such things as: student background and characteristics, academic performance, attendance and behavior; student and school instructional and support programs; school and district personnel, business and financial systems; etc. Gradually, through a combination of commitment and technological advances, we have been able to weld these sub-systems together into the beginnings of the comprehensive information systems we have long envisioned.

It is entirely possible that simple data systems may be all many institutions need, to find out about themselves, and to suggest directions for decisions. There are, however, more advanced management information systems that allow for simulation of the likely behavior of an institution under a variety of conditions. These not only show where an institution is but also what will likely happen under each of several eventualities.

Simulation systems are seen to have several distinct advantages. They force users to pay attention to interactions within an institution. They allow study of a wide variety of alternatives and help alleviate uncertainty by showing what will likely happen if certain events take place.

It is this author's opinion that most islands in the Caribbean can benefit from a Management Information System, but caution needs to be exercised when selecting and designing a system. It is better to start small and add components as time goes on rather than overbuild and create a system that takes more time and resources to support than is warranted by the educational system it is intended to serve.

The Role of Top Management

I would now like to address what I believe is one of the most important, if not in fact the single most important, ingredient for a MIS project. In order for a Management Information System to be successfully implemented, there needs to be a high level of commitment from the senior levels of the organization. Unless there is commitment from the Chief Executive Officer, the Deputy Minister, the Chief Education Officer and the Director, the President or Principal of the various institutions, your MIS project will not succeed. The people you assign to implement this project will be frustrated and confused.

There will also be conflict within your institutions and educational system because, unless the support and commitment of top management is clearly stated and permeated through the entire organization, people who, for whatever reason, fear MIS will throw obstacles in the way of those responsible for gathering

information and developing systems. We all know people who have a passive or creeping commitment to change. They don't want the status quo to be altered. I've often said about some people and their reluctance to support MIS is that they would sooner live with a problem that they can't solve than a solution they don't understand. When I was implementing Manitoba's MIS system, I was amazed at the attitude of some people who held very responsible positions in our institutions. "Why do we need MIS"--"Before I give you enrollment information, I want to know what you intend to use it for"--"Who wants to know how much it costs to offer my courses"--"I have all the student information I need in a big binder in my desk--if you want to know anything, just ask me." I could go on and give you more examples, but I hope the point is clear. In order for MIS to succeed, there has to be total commitment to cooperation throughout the entire organization and this can best be achieved by having the Chief Education Officers clearly articulate their commitment and their expectation that they expect all levels of the organization to give the MIS project their unqualified support.

One of management's most important responsibilities is to create a climate of support throughout the organization for the systems being undertaken and for the systems approach to management. Management must feel a genuine interest and indeed an excitement in the development of a MIS, or the key people in this important part of the business are likely to become discouraged. Similarly, they must demonstrate their interest and excitement for the project to the rest of the organization.

Resistance to Change

Probably there are more people who resist change for one reason or another when it is first introduced than there are those who accept it when it is first introduced. Resistance tends to focus on human relationships rather than on the structural and procedural changes in the systems themselves or the accompanying changes outside the systems. People resist change because it upsets their established pattern of behaviour. They often see it as a threat to their security.

These negative reactions can be shared by such diverse elements as the Department Head who sees his routine decisions programmed, the older long-time instructor who cannot adapt to the new technology, the relatively uneducated and unskilled worker whose background deters comprehension of abstract concepts and the student who is plagued by computer communications.

Erich Fromm, the noted psychologist, has stated:

> Computers should become a functional part of a life-oriented social system and not a cancer which begins to play havoc and eventually kills the system. Machines or computers must become means for ends which are determined by man's reason and will .... That is to say, man, not technique, must become the ultimate source of values; optimal human development and not maximal production the criterion for all planning.

Fortunately, not all change is resisted by all people. Some welcome change. It provides them with hope for adjustments in existing work situations, alterations in relationships that exist among their associates and opportunities to become more successful in time with their personal endeavor.

Therefore, in addition to the stated need for senior management commitment, which will help alleviate the uncertainties surrounding MIS, there is a need for an in-depth training program to ensure that all persons affected by the MIS fully understand the system and what it means to their daily lives.

There is increasing evidence that information system development and personnel development within an institution must not only be parallel in sophistication and noncontradictory in design, but also that concurrently developing programs are mutually supportive and increase the effectiveness of each far beyond the capability of either. Management Information System design, implementation, report format and use have become much more manager-oriented.

Managing the MIS

Today's educators must be prepared for successful working relationships with computerized information processing systems. They must understand and appreciate the broad impact computers have had, are having and can be expected to have on educators and the environment in which they work. The information technology can provide many benefits, but it can also present significant difficulties to managers who are not prepared to cope with the problems of organizing and controlling the information resource itself. How the organization deals with these problems (or fails to deal with them) will, in large measure, determine the success or failure of the MIS effort.

Some managers may even consider the computer an encroachment on and a threat to their traditional decision making rights. Perhaps they feel this way because the presence of decision-oriented information--specific facts and figures can force management to take information in distasteful situations which they are otherwise able to ignore. General knowledge does not trigger action but facts and figures cannot be continually ignored.

A manager must be able to separate the substance from the hype and if a manager is to use management information systems successfully he or she must be able to understand and measure the benefits--if you can measure it, you can manage it.

The administrative tasks in education are as complex and demanding as those in any business organization and, as in business, educators have much to gain from computerized assistance. Educational administrators are looking for ways to release both themselves and their teachers from routine clerical tasks and paper work in order to provide more time for instructional concerns. In addition, school administrators are seeking and using types of information never collected before, information which is now deemed necessary to make decisions concerning the efficient and effective operation of schools and divisions. In these regards, sufficient evidence exists to support the use of the computer

"when it is used for masses of data related to self-defined tasks, when processing is highly repetitive, when rules for decisions are specific, when processes are to be repeated many times under a variety of conditions, and when there is demand for speed." (Department of Computer Science, 1979, p. A1)(Marshall, 1982)

A point to remember is that a manager does not have to understand how a system works, only how to use it.

The Individual Institution and Management Information Systems

Although individual colleges and universities differ tremendously from each other in size, mission, complexity and philosophy, they are all somewhat similar administratively and share common information needs which conform to Anthony's (1965) and Sheehan's (1972)* three management function/activity/information levels: information for strategic planning (forecast reports), information for management control (analytic reports), and information for management control (analytic reports) and information for operational control (operating reports).

The first, or highest, level of the above hierarchy involves information which is used in developing sophisticated plans, policies, and in the formulation of strategic decisions, the results of which are of major consequence in determining the direction of the institution. The data at this level is quite often simulated into actual aspects of institutional operation which in essence focuses attention upon the interrelationship between the various facets of the collegial environment. These reports are aggregative in nature and are usually delivered to the presidents, deans, department chairmen, or directors on an irregular or, more specifically, on a need basis. Several examples of strategic planning concerns include: 1) future tuition increases, 2) acquiring new facilities, 3) enrolment forecasts, 4) initiating or deleting degree program, 5) changing organizational structure, 6) budgeting/financially allocating funds to the various colleges/departments and 7) examining and re-defining the institution's mission, philosophy and goals (Baldridge, 1971).

The second level, or that of management control, involves information which is used for the control of various administrative policies and decisions usually, but not always, relating to budgeting. This management control information appears far more regularly than the aforementioned strategic planning information and is delivered to upper- and middle-level administrators. Some examples of management control concerns include: 1) formulating line-item budgets, 2) promotion of student, 3) proper and consistent resource utilization, 4) changing curricula, 5) student enrolment patterns, 6) control of faculty and staff levels, 7) budget control and organizational inter-relationships, and 8) faculty/personnel evaluation (Millett, 1974).

---

*Sheehan's three levels of reports are placed within the brackets.

The third, or lowest, level of informational need revolves around operational control. This level deals with the basic control of specific tasks being executed resulting in immediate, daily or periodic action. Though sometimes described as merely clerical in nature, operational control decisions are ones made by all and thus witness information being delivered to almost all personnel from the bottom-line supervisors to the top-line administrators. More explicitly, information for operational control is furnished to: 1) registrars --data for scheduling courses, student admissions, grades, and transcripts, degrees and graduation; 2) librarians--circulation, storage, cataloguing, and purchasing; 3) personnel managers--payroll, applicant data, updated personnel data, staff benefits, and regular assignment and scheduling of employees; 4) facilities managers--scheduling of buildings and rooms, article inventory of buildings and grounds; 5) department chairmen--faculty activity and workload information, class/course assignment; 6) research directors--records on proposals, grants, contracts, and current status of on-going research; 7) alumni and placement officers--job interviews, corporation openings, visitations, alumni gifts and donations, alumni achievements, positions and publications; 8) financial managers--expenditure accounting, budget accounting, depreciation accounting, student loans and student aid accounting; 9) auxiliary managers --food services, housing, physical plan, institutional research, maintenance, book store, transportation, and many, many others (Fresh, 1975; Levine, 1975; T.D.R. Martin, 1974; Shelton, 1975; Thomas, 1975).

Much work has been done in computerizing information systems at the operational controls level. Scarcely an institution exists today that does not computerize student records, payroll, library circulation, inventory, registration procedures and other operations level tasks. The end result in the computerization of such tasks is the tremendous increase in efficiency and cost-effectiveness of these operations. Likewise, computerization of information systems on the strategic planning level and the management control level eliminates time-wastage and clerical error and helps improve the administration of the institution by providing systematic, timely and relevant information quickly and efficiently for planning purposes and administrative decision-making (Baughman, 1969).

Throughout this paper, many references have been made to the various components that would comprise a typical MIS design. Management Information Systems are a successful reality at a vast and increasing number of educational institutions and certainly, the hardward and software systems are now available that will allow many Caribbean educational systems to undertake a successful MIS program. Time does not permit me to discuss any of these systems in sufficient detail, but I have made available an outline of a system which has recently been developed by the Control Data Canada Corporation. The system is referred to as EDEN. The system is characterized by its comprehensiveness and ease of operation.

Appendix "B" to this paper details the important steps that should be taken in order to ensure a successful MIS implementation regardless of which system is selected.

Conclusion

A Management Information system is little more than a specialized information storage and retrieval system. It is, in its most basic form, a collection of data stored in some organized fashion, along with a set of programs or procedures which are used to retrieve whatever useful information is requested from the stored data base, and another set of procedures or programs which treat the data in various ways once the data is retrieved. It must be remembered that, in this process, data is and will always be raw material, information will always be the end product. To this basic form is added procedures to periodically update or add to the stored data bank. Though this certainly is by no means a description of a highly computerized, sophisticated, simulation-capable management information system, it amply describes the very basic structure of the management information system and, in fact, the very first manual management information systems which existed not so very long ago (Knapp and Ogilvie, 1973).

As mentioned earlier in this paper, today's more sophisticated management information systems, in addition to the storage of a very broad data base, include numerous models and computerized programs which are capable of retrieving necessary information instantaneously, displaying this information in meaningful forms to the user, simulating actual aspects of a college or university operation, and treating the data in a number of ways as it would be hypothetically affected by a number of possible alternatives before the decision is actually made to go with any one of or the 'best' alternative (Levine & Mowbray, 1974). The ultimate objective of the management information system is to provide management with information so that sound decisions may be made and proper alternatives may be implemented.

Tomorrow's management information systems can be speculated upon as to design, appearance, speed and quantifiable features. Ted Cudnick in a paper prepared in 1977 dealing with higher education and MIS speculated that "Certainly one may foresee an audio-video mechanism on the desks of the institutional executives with instant display of well positioned information and accompanying audio discussion of alternatives with far-ranging simulated effects. Even as the administrator speaks or converses with his peers, the system senses his direction and responds with needed and crucial information and displays alternatives for decision-making purposes." "Should some of these advancements actually take place, they will result in alteration of hardware and software design."

Cudnick was certainly a prophet because earlier this year I had a telephone installed in my office known as an ENVOY Display phone wich is a type of mini-micro computer. It has a 6-inch square screen and a miniature keyboard built into the base of the phone. By simply punching in a couple of commands, I can call up current budget or cash flow information, or enrolment statistics which are stored on larger micros in my office or on a mainframe computer located at the University many miles away from my office. However, regardless of the technological advancements and the new executive toys that come into the market, the purpose of the management information system will remain for a long

while or, in fact, indefinitely. That is, the management information system will continue to allow the administration to make decisions on a more informed, more accurate basis. Obvious it is that no matter how sophisticated the system becomes, it will still remain the servant of man and not make the decision itself, but rather supply the needed information and thus allow man to make the soundest of decisions possible (Hammer, 1974).

It is with this in mind that higher education can continue to utilize such systems and support their continued development without fear of lost autonomy. Thus, the future of management information systems in higher education remains an exciting challenge because these projections should come about, but they can only be achieved through the continuing efforts of today's users.

Management information systems must continue to allow institutions their autonomy, their dignity, their freedom of philosophy and direction. The positive contributions must be continued and the progress must be enchanced for management information systems to be totally accepted by all in the world of academe. The responsibility for achieving all of this in the foreseeable future rests with today's users within higher education. With constant efforts on the part of all, management information systems can find their rightful place in the support of higher education for now and in the future.

1. Students

$$\frac{\text{Number of new-student applications this year}}{\text{Number of new-student applications last year}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Number of accepted students}}{\text{Number of applicants}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Number of enrolled students}}{\text{Number of accepted students}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Number of enrolled students}}{\text{Number of applicants}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Full-time students}}{\text{Part-time students}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Number of graduating students}}{\text{Number of students entering 2 or 4 years earlier}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Number of graduates}}{\text{Number of majors offered}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Number of students}}{\text{Number of majors offered}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Number of students}}{\text{Number of courses offered}}$$

2. Faculty

$$\frac{\text{FTE students}}{\text{FTE faculty}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Full-time faculty}}{\text{Part-time faculty}}$$

$$\frac{\text{FTE faculty}}{\text{Part-time faculty}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Majors}}{\text{FTE faculty}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Courses}}{\text{FTE faculty}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Total course credit hours}}{\text{FTE faculty}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Total student credit hours}}{\text{FTE faculty}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Total student credit hours (Year N)}}{\text{Total student credit hours (Year X)}}$$

APPENDIX I

3. Administration

$$\frac{\text{FTE students}}{\text{FTE administration}}$$

$$\frac{\text{FTE students}}{\text{FTE staff}}$$

$$\frac{\text{FTE faculty}}{\text{FTE administration}}$$

$$\frac{\text{FTE faculty}}{\text{FTE staff}}$$

4. Facilities

$$\frac{\text{Dormitory occupancy}}{\text{Dormitory capacity}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Total enrollment}}{\text{Number of classroom seats}}$$

$$\frac{\text{Total library volumes (year N)}}{\text{Total library volumes (year X)}}$$

APPENDIX II

DEFINE MANAGERS' NEEDS FIRST

Managers' information needs should determine the design of the system. Involving information users in the development of the system and integrating the information system with existing management processes can help to ensure responsiveness to managers' needs. Developing computer programs after managers' information needs are clearly defined will help to prevent computer technology from dominating the design of the system.

INVOLVE DATA PROVIDERS IN SYSTEM DEVELOPMENT

Data providers are much more likely to submit accurate and timely data if they view the system as responsive to their needs. Information needs of data providers will be considered if data providers are involved in system design. At the same time, they will recognize that they are receiving benefits for their efforts.

MINIMIZE DUPLICATION IN DATA COLLECTION

The ultimate objective should be to require data providers to supply each item of information only once to reduce the burden on their time and to minimize the chance for errors. Duplication can be minimized in several ways. Information already in the general education data bank can be used for the special education system. Universities or service agencies may have information special education managers need. Cross-referencing several sources of information can provide many different reports from a few unique pieces of data.

DESIGN SIMPLE DATA COLLECTION FORMS AND REPORTS

Data collection forms that are easy to complete make accurate and timely submission of data more likely. Managers will more likely use information provided by the system if it is presented in an understandable report. Therefore, data collection forms should be as self-explanatory as possible and system reports should be easy to understand.

PILOT THE SYSTEM

A pilot test of the system in one institution or major program area can bring out problems and needs experienced in actual use of the system. Changes can then be made more easily before full scale implementation takes place.

PHASE IN IMPLEMENTATION

Phasing in implementation allows data providers and users to adjust gradually to the system and the system can be revised more easily. For example, data collection, processing and reporting for students could be implemented before data about personnel and finance. By phasing in the system, managers also begin to receive information from the system at an earlier time.

BUILD A FLEXIBLE SYSTEM

The needs of special education administrators and managers will change over time. Changes may be as broad as new regulations or as specific as adding the names of a child's siblings. System designers should expect that some changes will be necessary. Procedures for identifying and implementing desired adjustments on an on-going basis should be an integral part of the total system.

Bibliography

Anthony, R.N. Planning and control systems: a framework for analysis, Boston: Division for Research, Graduate School of Business Administration, Harvard University, 1965.

Baughman, G. "Evaluating the performance and effectiveness of university management information systems." In J. Minter and B. Lawrence (eds.), Management information systems: their development and use in the administration of higher education. Papers from the Seminar on the Advanced State-of-the-Art sponsored by WICHE and ACE, Washington, D.C.: April 24-26, 1969, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 042 427).

Fresh, F.A. "Facilities and housing management." In Technical Assistance Consortium to Improve College Services, Report on spring workshop: management information systems and consortia for institutional research. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Services to Education, 1975, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED. 124 561)

Knapp, W.C. & Ogilvie, R.G. "Data base is not a system." In C.R. Thomas & S. Manning (eds.), Future of higher education information systems: yesterday's solutions are tomorrow's problems. Proceedings of the CAUSE National Conference, New Orleans: December 10-12, 1973, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 110 006).

Levine, J.B. "Role of planning and management systems in post-secondary education." In Technical Assistance Consortium to Improve College Services, Report on spring workshop: management information systems and consortia for institutional research. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Services to Education, 1975, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 124 561).

Marshall, D.G. Purchasing a Microprocessor System for Administrative Use in Schools, 1982.

Martin, T.D.R. "Simple data base structure for on-line admissions and registration." In P.J. Plourde & C.R. Thomas (eds.), Innovative systems: solution or illusion (Vol. 2). Proceedings of the CAUSE National Conference, Arlington, Virginia: December 9-11, 1974, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 110 066).

Mayhew, Lewis B. Surviving the Eighties, 1979.

Millett, J.D. "Management of state systems of higher education." In J.A. Perkins & B.B. Israel, (eds.), Higher education: from autonomy to systems. New York: International Council for Educational Development, 1972.

Millett, J.D. "Management and information in higher education." In P.J. Plourde & C.R. Thomas (Eds.), Innovative systems: solution or illusion (Vol. 1). Proceedings of the CAUSE National Conference, Arlington, Virginia: December 9-11, 1974. (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 110 065).

Sheehan, B.S. Report one: western Canadian universities task force on information needs and systems. Alberta, Canada: University of Calgary, 1972.

Shelton, Q. "Financial aid and grants management." In Technical Assistance Consortium to Improve College Services, Report on spring workshop: management information systems and consortia for institutional research, Washington, D.C.: Institute for Services to Education, 1975, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 124 561)

Thomas, C.R. "Admissions, registration and student records." In Technical Assistance Consortium to Improve College Services, Report on spring workshop: management information systems and consortia for institutional research. Washington, D.C.: Institute for Services to Education, 1975, (ERIC Document Reproduction Service No. ED 124 561)

SOCIOLOGICAL ISSUES IN THE PREPARATION OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS IN DEVELOPING AREAS WITH SPECIAL REFERENCE TO THE CARIBBEAN

by

Anthony Layne, Ph.D.
Faculty of Education
University of the West Indies
Cave Hill,
Barbados

ABSTRACT

This paper examines the fundamental and related sociological issues of development and power as they relate to the preparation of educational administrators in the so-called Developing Areas. Special attention is paid to the case of the Commonwealth Caribbean. Conventional definitions of develoment are treated as problematic. It is argued that in order to promote meaningful development, actual and potential educational administrators in the Commonwealth Caribbean and other newly-independent countries must reject conventional definitions of development as well as develop political skills in addition to the planning and other technical expertise which they are presently acquiring.

Governments in the so-called "Developing Countries" are increasingly coming to believe in the desirability of preparation or training for administrators, including educational administrators. They have been receiving assistance from international organizations such as UNESCO, the Commonwealth Secretariat, the University Council for Educational Administration, and the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration, in the training of actual and potential administrators in their countries. The big question is what meaning is to be attached to these preparation or training programmes.

This paper limits itself to an examination of two fundamental and related issues in the preparation of educational administrators in the so-called Developing Countries of the Commonwealth, especially the countries of the Commonwealth Caribbean. The two issues are educational administration and regional development, and educational administration and the unequal distribution of power. The first section of the paper questions conventional definitions of development, including the widely-held notion that only the non-industrialized countries should be classified as "Developing". The second section describes regional training programmes for educational administrators which have been carried out in the Commonwealth Caribbean by international organizations with the backing of the regional governments. The third section provides an insight into the socio-political environment in which educational administrators in the countries under study have had to operate. It is concluded that educational administrators in the countries in question need to come to an explicit recognition of the fact that education and politics do mix, and must strive to build up their political skills if they are serious about increasing the contribution of education to development.

The Meaning of Development

Those who are responsible for the preparation of educational administrators would claim that their aim is to promote "development". The same claim would be made by the administrators themselves. But development is a highly controversial concept.

The practice of using a single, convenient, aggregative yardstick, per capita income, to measure development is widespread. On the criterion of per capita income, the industrialized countries of the White North are usually classified as Developed and the Third World countries as Developing. The fact of the matter is that social problems and political upheavals have been afflicting countries with rising per capita incomes, as well as countries with stagnant economies. There are at least three central questions which must be asked if one is to come to a meaningful understanding of the development process:

> "The questions to ask about a country's development are therefore: What has been happening to poverty? What has been happening to unemployment? What has been happening to inequality? If all three of these have declined from high levels, then beyond doubt this has been a period of development for the country concerned. If one or two of these central problems have been growing worse, especially if all three have,

> it would be strange to call the result 'development', even if per capita income doubled."
>
> (Seers, 1973:7)

The countries of the Third World do not have a monopoly on poverty, unemployment, and inequality. Even the United States, which is considered by some to be the most "Developed" country in the World, has its fair share of poverty, unemployment, and inequality. This paper rejects, therefore, any notion that development is a terminal process, a process which comes to a screaming halt once a country becomes like those of the industralized White North. The term "Developing Areas" is patently ethnocentric, as is revealed in the following excerpt from Adams and Bjork (1969:1):

> "When American servicemen overseas dream of an end to conflict and their return home, they usually envision the United States as a true land of milk and honey. It is a place where one can order a thick milk shake, where one can easily get a car and the gas to run it, where meat on the table is a possibility at nearly every meal, where clothes can be easily bought and easily cleaned and where sheets on the bed are the norm for nearly everyone. In other words, they consider America superior to the areas in which they are fighting or have fought (such as southern Europe, North Africa, Korea, Vietnam) mainly because its material wealth vastly outdistances most of the lands with which they have come in contact. The GIs have coined derogatory terms for the poor Asians, the poor North Africans and others. But wealthy Americans of Asian parentage are exempt from this ignoble nomenclature because they have gained much of the material wherewithal that seems to remove the stigma.
>
> In more academic language, we have come to call most of these countries and peoples falling outside Europe, North America, and Australia simply 'underdeveloped' or, more hopefully, 'developing'.
>
> (Emphasis added)

It is clearly necessary to ask the question: Which kind of development and hence which kind of education? (Lema and Marquez, 1978:295-300). Concerned people have been asking this question in industrialized and non-industrialized countries alike, even though they have been in a minority. The once unquestioned technocratic view of the relationship between development and education, and other approaches that tended to concentrate on the contribution of education to economic growth - for example the relationship between education and gross national product - have been gradually losing ground (ibid.:297). If it is accepted that development ought to imply, at the very least, the reduction of poverty, unemployment, and the myriad forms of inequality, then it should be recognized that development is ultimately a

problem of power. Any steps which are taken to achieve what is considered in this essay to be the three key objectives of meaningful development - that is, measures which seek to improve the lot of all human beings - will be resisted by those who have a vested interest in the perpetuation of the status quo.

These crucial issues of development and the unequal distribution of power help us to understand why, in the literature on administrator preparation, opinion has been divided on a number of matters. These matters include:

1. the substance of preparation programmes, particularly the issue of the importance of social science content;

2. values in administrative practice, and the relevance of the humanities in the study of administration;

3. "training in common" for administrators from different institutional settings;

4. the relationship between theory and practice;

5. the extent to which there should be differentiated preparation programmes for a varied clientele with varied career goals; and

6. whether it is defensible to maintain a distinction between pre-service and in-service activities in view of the changing characteristics of students and the conditions under which they study educational administration. (Miklos 1983:153-172)

At the root of the ongoing debate in the literature is the issue of whose interests are served by administrator preparation programmes and in what ways. (ibid.:172).

Regional Efforts at Administrator Preparation

Against the background of the remarks made in the preceding section, a description will now be given of some activities which have been carried out in the area of training of educational administrators in the ex-colonies of the Commonwealth. The focus of attention is the Commonwealth Caribbean. It must be emphasized that while activities which have been carried out at the national level may be of interest, the primary concern in this essay is with what has been happening at the regional level. This involves, essentially, a description of the work done by the Commonwealth Secretariat, and of a collaborative effort by UNESCO's Caribbean Network of Education Innovation for Development (CARNEID), the University of the West Indies (U.W.I.), and the United States Agency for International Development (USAID).

Activities of the Commonwealth Secretariat

Three important things happened at the Fifth Conference of Commonwealth Ministers of Education which was held in Canberra in 1971. Firstly, that Conference was the first Commonwealth Conference to discuss specifically the subject of educational administration. Secondly, that conference expressed support for the training of professional and administrative personnel in education. Thirdly, it gave the Commonwealth Secretariat a clearing house role in the training of professional and administrative personnel in education.

It is not necessary to provide here all the details of the training activities which were carried out by the Commonwealth Secretariat in the wake of the Canberra Conference. It will suffice to highlight a number of activities, for the Commonwealth Secretariat has published a report on the various regional workshops, planning meetings, and regional training courses which it carried out during 1973-1979 (Commonwealth Secretariat, 1981). The first thing which would be mentioned is that three regional workshops were held: in Sierra Leone (1973), in Guyana (1974), and in Malaysia (1975). Secondly, by the time of the Malaysia workshop, the Commonwealth Ministers of Education had reached agreement on

(a) the importance of regular Commonwealth in-service meetings for educational administrators, and

(b) giving consideration to the establishment of regional and inter-regional centres for training educational administrators and supervisors.

Thridly, a planning meeting which was held in Nairobi (Kenya) in 1975 drew on the experience gained in the three regional workshops, and provided the framework for three regional training courses. Those courses were held in Nairobi (1977), in Fiji (1978), and in Barbados (1979). The work which was done in the three regional training courses was welcomed by the Commonwealth Conference of Ministers of Education which was held in Colombo in 1980.

The Barbados course was for the Commonwealth Caribbean, and is therefore of special interest. Its organization was influenced by the experience gained by the organizers during the preceding regional training courses, especially the Nairobi course:

> "Seen, in part, as a pilot programme, the Nairobi course indicated strengths and weaknesses in the course structure, and in the practical arrangements, to which subsequent courses could respond. For example, the course highlighted the difficulties of meeting the needs of a heterogeneous group of principals, advisers, district education officers, and inspectors in a consistently appropriate way both in the conceptual structure of the course and in its practical expression. At the same

> time the value of a professional interchange of views among officers occupying different positions in national administrative structures was readily apparent. It was recognized also that attachments to educational and administrative institutions could play a prominent training role, strengthening an appreciation of concepts and processes examined theoretically. Similarly, it became clear that a variety of training techniques should be utilized, associated with training materials which could be of use in the participants' home countries.
>
> In the light of this experience and the second course held in Fiji for the Commonwealth Pacific in 1978, the Commonwealth Secretariat organized that third regional course maintaining the principle that existing training institutions are the most effective mechanism through which courses of the type recommended by the Nairobi meeting may be provided."
>
> (Commonwealth Secretariat,1981:1)

The Barbados course was hosted by the Government of Barbados in association with the University of the West Indies at Cave Hill. It lasted for nine weeks, and was attended by 18 participants from 11 Commonwealth Caribbean countries. The participants were a heterogeneous group: school principals, a principal of a teacher training college, education officers or supervisors whose roles included the supervision of teachers as well as in-service and curriculum development, an assistant secretary to a Ministry of Education, and a chief education officer.

The syllabus for the course for this varied group was prepared by the Commonwealth Secretariat in the light of the previous two regional courses, and was modified to meet the specific "needs" of the participants. The outline syllabus had two main units:

1. the examination of education in its social and economic context and the implications which flow from this for understanding different levels of the management cycle, and

2. a concentration on supervision in relation to specific task areas.

Course materials included country papers, case studies, and simulation.

According to the Commonwealth Secretariat, the responses of the participants to the evaluation questionnaire which was administered in the last week of the course revealed

(a) that all but one of the participants considered the course to have heightened their appreciation

of the management process;

(b) that all but one of the participants felt that an understanding of the concepts to which they had been exposed would improve their effectiveness as educational administrators on their return home, although their ability to implement training activities would depend upon their role and influence within their national system; and

(c) that there was agreement that the course assisted in the identification of training needs and provided useful ideas on the planning and organization of training courses.

(Commonwealth Secretariat 1981:105)

CARNEID/UWI/USAID Project

The other regional training effort which should be mentioned is the collaborative one by CARNEID, the UWI, the USAID. To date, this effort has taken the form of three regional workshops on educational planning and administration. It may be of interest to note that participants in the workshop included persons from non-English speaking Caribbean countries, such as Cuba and Haiti, since CARNEID's operation covers the entire Caribbean.

A report on the three workshops has been published by CARNEID (1985). According to that report, the workshops have aimed at assisting Ministries of Education in improving the competence of their Senior Education Specialists in Educational Planning and Administration. The first workshop was for Chief Education Officers and Directors of Education. It was held in St. Lucia in April, 1983. The issues which were given special emphasis were: educational planning in the context of national planning, central issues in educational planning and administration, case studies in educational planning and administration, and the elaboration of national action plans in respect of UNESCO's "Major Project" (for Latin America and the Caribbean).

The second workshop was for Education Officers and Principals of educational institutions. It was held in Barbados in December 1983. It emphasized the following topics: planning and management of educational costs, planning and development of human resources, evaluation in educational planning and management, the use of statistics in educational planning and management, and the roles and functions of educational personnel.

The third workshop was held in Nassau, the Bahamas, in October 1984. It was a follow-up workshop to the one which was held in Barbados for Education Officers and Principals. The topics covered were: the importance of diagnosis in educational planning, diagnostic methods, analysis and data collection, indicators of the educational system, trends and projects, evaluation of an educational project, and problems and difficulties in the administration of in-service teacher education.

The Socio-Political Environment

The fact that actual and potential educational administrators in the Commonwealth Caribbean and the other ex-colonies of the Commonwealth are being helped to build up their technical skills, including their planning skills, is not to be decried. The issue is, however, whether they are able to use those skills in a meaningful way, that is, to promote development as defined in this essay. The answer appears to be in the negative, at least for the time being.

The defining feature of the ex-colonies of the Commonwealth is that fundamental cleavages based on race and class have continued to exist in these societies. In the specific case of the Commonwealth Caribbean, the expansion and reform of the educational systems of the region in the post-colonial era, i.e., over the last two decades, have helped to bring about a measure of upward social mobility for a few individuals from among the historically subordinate Black and Indian groups. Such expansion and reform have had the effect of "creating a new class of privileged nationals", even though the objective of the expansion and reform has officially been to help remedy the injustices of the colonial era. (Carrington, 1978:89). The absorption by the historically dominant white group of a limited number of individuals from the historically subordinate groups appears to have done more to reinforce the class structure than to undermine it:

> "Around the region, black faces adorn boards of directors, inhabit the ministerial offices, and man all reaches of the civil service. The administrative and political structures of the region have become almost completely Africanized and Indianized. New elites have burgeoned.
>
> In Jamaica and Trinidad and Tobago particularly, the rise to power and privilege of the local elites has been the most visible and most flaunted. Huge, garish houses have gone up in exclusive neighbourhoods, testifying cogently to their owners' affluence, if not to their taste.
>
> Mercedes sports and touring cars bump and jaunce their way through the potholes. The materialistic wives and children of the new elite, to whom social concern is as foreign as their color TV sets, shop in Miami, finger their way through boutiques, and display a disdain for their less fortunate fellow citizens of which any nineteenth century British aristocrat would have been proud."
>
> (Farrell, 1983:4)

To round out the picture provided above, it is useful to examine the pattern of adjustment to sharing of power by the political elites in the post-colonial Commonwealth Caribbean. It has been usefully pointed by Paget and Stone

(1983:xii, xiii) that while there have been variations in this pattern of adjustment, there have been at least two common factors. The first common factor is a tendency toward almost life-and-death party competition, a tendency which has resulted in violence and repressive legislation. The second common factor is the development and growth over time of a system of interests between the economic and the political elites:

> "This system of interests is rooted in the needs of the economic elites for the cooperation and protection of the state, and in the needs of the political elites for the investments and the personal contributions of the economic elites. The claims of this system of interests have led to the political elites to reverse or discard many of the promises of the period of nationalist struggle and have resulted in a corresponding decrease in the capacity of the masses to influence decision-making. This decrease is often compensated for by an increased reliance on patronage and the cultivation of clientelistic ties that developed earlier but were eclipsed by the more ideologically oriented politics of the decolonization period. As a result, the tendency toward machine-type politics and corruption has increased in the post-colonial period, posing yet another challenge to the democratic self-image of the Caribbean State.
>
> (Paget and Stone, 1983:xiii)

The political pattern described above is not confined to the Commonwealth Caribbean. It is also found in most other newly independent countries of the Commonwealth. In discussing the subject of "politicians, bureaucrats, and decision-making" in newly-independent countries, Horowitz (1972: 403-408) has stressed that

> 1. the new leaders insist on having all policies originate with the party in power so as to ensure control, and
>
> 2. a major point of conflict between the politicians and the bureaucrats in these countries is the question of personnel recruitment for administrative posts.

On the question of recruitment for administrative posts, Horowitz has highlighted the fact that considerations of patronage tend to be prominent:

> "Whether trained personnel are available or not, political leaders find themselves under overwhelming pressure to fill administrative posts through patronage. Party followers, competent or not, demand some share in the spoils of power as a reward

> for allegiance. Furthermore, the new government, none too sure of its own stability, operates in a paranoid environment in which distribution of patronage is seen as vital precaution against opposition from disgruntled followers.
>
> (Horowitz, 1972:409)

Conclusion

This paper began by treating the concepts of development and of "Developing Countries as problematic. It was argued that development ought to imply at least the reduction of poverty, unemployment, and inequality, and that this implies that all countries are, in a very real sense, developing. It was also pointed out that the crucial related issues of development and power help to provide an understanding of why at least six sociological issues are frequently discussed in the literature on administrator preparation. A description was then given of the activities which the Commonwealth Secretariat has been carrying out in the area of the preparation of educational administrators in the ex-colonies of the Commonwealth, and reference was made to the collaborative regional training effort of CARNEID, the UWI, and USAID, in the Commonwealth Caribbean. The point was made that the building up of technical skills be actual and potential educational administrators is commendable, but that the prevailing socio-political environment militates against the effective use of these skills by educational administrators in the cause of development as defined in this essay.

The question which presents itself, then, is what can be done in preparation programmes to help educational administrators contribute to the substantial reduction and eventual elimination of poverty, unemployment, and inequality. Such administrators need to develop their planning skills, and progress is apparently already being made in this respect. But, and perhaps even more importantly, they also have to develop political skills, since development is, in the final analysis, a problem of power.

In respect of the development of political skills, actual and potential educational administrators can draw on the experience of their counterparts in industrialized countries such as the United States. It is a moot point whether educational administrators in the United States are committed to the reduction of poverty, unemployment, and inequality. However, in the United States, school superintendents and principals, for instance, have been developing their planning and political skills with a view to commanding respect and to exercising influence in matters educational (Hess, 1983:236-244). They have been able to do this because, inter alia, they

> (a) have developed sophisticated data and methods of analysis which have enabled them to gain a crucial advantage over other groups with interests in education, and

> (b) have had technical staffs with the know-how to enable them to justify organizational changes, obtain favourable collective bargaining agreements, and raise additional monies.
>
> (ibid.:244)

Time will tell what will become of educational administrators and of preparation programmes for this group in the Commonwealth Caribbean and other newly independent countries of the Commonwealth. One thing seems to be predictable. As the newly-independent countries of the Commonwealth move into the twenty-first century, educational administrators in these countries will be forced to keep abreast of the time in terms of the development of technical skills. Whether they will continue to use these skills primarily to serve the cause of the rich and powerful is an open question.

References

Adams, D., and Bjork, R.M., (1969) Education in Developing Areas. David McKay Company, Inc. New York.

Caribbean Network of Educational Innovation and Development (1985) CARNEID/UWI-USAID Primary Education Project Workshop on Educational Planning and Administration. CARNEID, Bridgetown, Barbados.

Carrington, Lawrence (1978) Education and Development in the English Speaking Caribbean: A Contemporary Survey. UNESCO/ECLA/UNDP, Buenos Aires.

Commonwealth Secretariat (1981) Educational Administration and Supervision. Commonwealth Secretariat, London.

Farrell, Trevor M. (1983) "Decolonization in the English-Speaking Caribbean: Myth or Reality?" In The Newer Caribbean: Decolonization, Democracy and Development (edited by Paget, P. and Stone, C.) pp. 3-13. Institute for the Study of Human Issues, Philadelphia.

Hess, Fritz (1983) "Evaluation in Practice". Educational Administration Quarterly, vol. xix, No. 3, pp. 223-248.

Horowitz, Irving L. (1972) Three Worlds of Development: The Theory and Practice of International Stratification. (Second Edition). Oxford University Press, New York and London.

Lema, Vincente, and Marquez, A.D. (1978). "What Kind of Development and Which Education". Prospects, Vol. viii, No. 3, pp. 295-300.

Miklos, Erwin (1983) "Evaluation in Administrator Preparation Programs". Education Administration Quarterly, Vol. xix, No. 3, pp. 153-177.

Paget, P. and Stone, C. (1983) "Introduction". In The Newer Caribbean: Decolonization Democracy, and Development (edited by Paget, P. and Stone, C.) pp. vii-xv. Institute for the Study of Human Issues, Philadelphia.

Seers, Dudley (1973) "The Meaning of Development". In The Political Economy of Development and Underdevelopment. (edited by Wilber, Charles K.) pp. 6-14. Random House, New York.

APPENDIX 1

A SYMPOSIUM

Sponsored by

the

CARIBBEAN SOCIETY OF EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

in

association

with

THE COMMONWEALTH COUNCIL FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION

and

THE FACULTY OF EDUCATION, U.W.I., CAVE HILL

on

The Professional Preparation and Development of
Educational Administrators in Developing Areas
with emphasis on the Commonwealth Caribbean

from

August 26 - 30, 1985

Papers will be presented by speakers from
across the Commonwealth and Latin America
(Africa, Australia, Brazil, Canada, Caribbean, India and U.K.)

For further information and application forms
please get in contact with

E. H. NEWTON

Symposium Co-ordinator
Faculty of Education
U.W.I., Cave Hill
Tel. No. 425-1462

CONFERENCE DETAILS

TITLE OF SYMPOSIUM:	The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas With Emphasis on the Commonwealth Caribbean.
MAIN SPONSORS:	The Caribbean Society of Educational Administrators The Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration.
TIME:	The Conference opens at 9:00 a.m. on Monday, 26 August and ends on the evening of Friday, 30 August, 1985.
PLACE:	Paradise Beach Hotel, Barbados.
PARTICIPATION:	Participation in the Conference is open to all who are interested in Educational Administration in developing areas. As places are limited, you are urged to submit your application early. A registration form is enclosed.
SPEAKERS:	Individuals from Commonwealth areas have been invited to present papers at the symposium. They were selected by the symposium organisers on the basis of their past activities (research, writing, etc.) in the area of educational administration in developing areas.
AIMS:	The general purpose of this symposium is to explore issues related to the professional preparation and development of educational administrators in developing areas generally and in the Commonwealth Caribbean in particular. Specific purposes are as follows:

1. To identify and discuss issues related to theory, research and practice of educational administration in developing areas generally and the Commonwealth Caribbean specifically, as these issues apply to the professional preparation and development of school administrators in the Commonwealth Caribbean.

2. To identify and discuss the relationship between Caribbean, Canadian and other Commonwealth scholars and researchers in educational administration.

3. To bring together scholars from the Caribbean, Canada and other Commonwealth nations who have demonstrated in their previous work an interest in pursuing further knowledge in the area of educational administration in developing areas.

4. To provide a forum for the collection and analysis of a selection of specially written resource materials addressing research, theory and professional preparation and development in educational administration in developing areas.

AIMS (continued)

5. To provide a foundation and direction for future educational reserch and co-operative ventures in this field between Commonwealth Caribbean, Canada and other Commonwealth nations.

PURPOSE

A major purpose of the symposium is to prepare a collection of readings in the area of the professional preparation and development of educational adminstrators in developing areas. Therefore, after the symposium, all presented papers and the prepared reactions will be collected and edited in book form by the symposium organizers. This collection of readings should be of value to teacher-training institutions in the Commonwealth Caribbean.

It is hoped that the symposium will have maximum impact upon programmes for the professional preparation and development of school administrators in the Commonwealth Caribbean, in terms of

a) the establishment of a network of persons working on problems of common interest to people in the Commonwealth in the area of educational administration, and

b) the generation of new ideas and frameworks.

PROPOSED TOPICS AND SPEAKERS:

1. The Caribbean at the Crossroads: Implications for Education - Miss B. Miller, Minister of Education, Barbados.

2. Critical Issues in the Professional Preparation and Development of Eductaional Administrators in Developing Areas - E.H. Newton, University of the West Indies, Cave Hill.

3. The Place of Theory in the Training of Educational Administrators - J.A. Riffel, University of Manitoba.

4. Education and Development: Implications for Educational Administration and Planning - K. Bacchus, University of Alberta.

5. Learning Resources in the Training of Third World Educational Administrators - P. Hurst/Susie Rodwell, University of London.

6. Nature and Needs in the Field of Educational Administration in the Commonwealth Caribbean - E. Miller, University of the West Indies, Mona.

PROPOSED TOPICS AND SPEAKERS (continued):

7. Managing Systems in the Caribbean - R.V. Goodridge, University of the West Indies, Cave Hill.

8. The Delivery of Professional Preparation and Development Programmes for School Administrators: The Commonwealth Caribbean - D. Marshall, Nipissing University College, North Bay.

9. Women in Educational Administration in Third World Countries, Usha Nayar, National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, India.

10. Towards a Gender - Inclusive Theory of Educational Administration for the Third World - Dr. Lynn Davies University of Birmingham.

11. Graduate Programmes in Educational Administration in Developing Areas - J. Olembo, Kenyatta University, Kenya.

12. Sociological Issues in the Preparation of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas, with special reference to the Caribbean - A. Layne, University of the West Indies, Cave Hill.

13. Economic Consideration for the Planning and Administration of Education in the Caribbean - C. Maynard, Ministry of Education, Dominica.

14. Future Directions in Educational Administration in Developing Areas - M. Hughes, University of Birmingham.

15. Education and Dependence: Implications for Educational Administrtaion in Latin America and the Caribbean - B. Sander, Inter-American Society for Educational Administration.

16. Assessing Effectiveness in the field of Professional Preparation Programs - W. Mulford, Canberra College of Advanced Education.

IMMIGRATION REQUIREMENTS:

Citizens of certain countries, e.g. India and Pakistan, require visas and health certificates to travel to Barbados. Be sure to check on requirements with the authorities in your country. You will be met at the airport if you let us know your flight number and time of arrival.

1985-04-01

APPENDIX 2

SYMPOSIUM TIMETABLE

MONDAY - AUGUST 26

8.30 - 9.00 a.m.	Registration
9.00 - 10.30 a.m.	OPENING SESSION: Speakers: The Honourable Billie Miller, Minister of Education Alfred Nurse - CARSEA Robin Farquhar - President, CCEA
10.30 - 10.55 a.m.	B R E A K
11.00 - 12.30 p.m.	PAPER 1 Education and Dependence: Implications for Educational Administration in Latin America and the Caribbean SPEAKER: Dr. Benno Sander - Inter-american Society for Educational Administration, Brazil CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Leonard Shorey REACTOR: Dr. Anthony Layne, University of the West Indies, Barbados
12.30 - 1.30 p.m.	L U N C H
1.35 - 3.05 p.m.	PAPER 2 Graduate Programmes in Education Administration in Developing Areas SPEAKER: Dr. Jotham Olembo, Kenyatta University College, Nairobi, Kenya CHAIRPERSON: Alfred Nurse REACTOR: Dr. Robin Farquhar, The University of Winnipeg, Winnipeg, Canada
3.15 - 4.45 p.m.	PAPER 3 Assessing Effectiveness in the Field of Professional Preparation Programmes in Educational Administration SPEAKER: Dr. William Mulford, Canberra College of Advanced Education, Australia CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Errol Miller REACTOR: Basil Kings, University of New England, Australia

END OF FIRST DAY

TUESDAY - AUGUST 27

9.00 - 10.30 a.m. PAPER 4

Learning Resources in the Training of Third World Educational Administrators
SPEAKER: Miss Susie Rodwell, University of London Institute of Education, London
CHAIRPERSON: Mrs. Ada Straughn
REACTOR: Dr. Jotham Olembo, Kenyatta University College, Nairobi, Kenya

10.30 - 10.55 a.m. B R E A K

11.00 - 12.30 p.m. PAPER 5

Women in Educational Administration in Third World Countries
SPEAKER: Dr. Usha Nayar, National Institute for Educational Planning and Administration, India
CHAIRPERSON: Earle Newton
REACTOR: Dr. Lynn Davies, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, England

12.30 - 1.30 p.m. L U N C H

1.35 - 3.05 p.m. PAPER 6

Towards a Gender-Inclusive Theory of Educational Administration for the Third World
SPEAKER: Dr. Lynn Davies, University of Birmingham, Birmingham, England
CHAIRPERSON: Ken Agard
REACTOR: Dr. Olga James Reid, University of West Indies, Jamaica

3.10 - 4.40 p.m. PAPER 7

Nature and Needs in the Field of Educational Administration in the Commonwealth Caribbean
SPEAKER: Prof. Errol Miller, University of the West Indies, Jamaica
CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Meredydd Hughes
REACTOR: Esperanza Tomlinson

4.40 - 5.00 p.m. B R E A K

5.00 - 6.30 p.m. PAPER 8

The Delivery of Professional Preparation and Development Programmes for School Administrators: The Commonwealth Caribbean
SPEAKER: Dr. Dave Marshall, Nipissing University College, North Bay, Canada
CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Courtroy Holder
REACTOR: Dr. Claudia Harvey, University of the West Indies, Trinidad

WEDNESDAY - AUGUST 28

9.00 - 10.30 a.m. PAPER 9

Managing Systems in the Caribbean
SPEAKER: Mr. Rudolph Goodridge, University of the West Indies, Barbados
CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Usha Nayar
REACTOR: Dr. Courtroy Holder, University of the West Indies, Barbados

10.30 - 10.55 a.m. B R E A K

11.00 - 12.30 p.m. PAPER 10

The Place of Theory in the Training of Educational Administrators
SPEAKER: Dr. Tony Riffel, University of Manitoba, Canada
CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Claudia Harvey
REACTOR: Earle Newton, University of the West Indies, Barbados

12.30 - 1.00 p.m. L U N C H

1.35 - 3.05 p.m. PAPER 11

Management Information Systems as a Tool For Educational Administrators in the Commonwealth Caribbean
SPEAKER: Dr. Jack Heuvel, Manitoba Education, Canada
CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Dave Marshall
REACTOR: Dr. Bevis Peters, University of the West Indies, Barbados

3.15 - 4.45 p.m. PAPER 12

Sociological Issues in the Preparation of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas with Special Reference to the Caribbean
SPEAKER: Dr. Anthony Layne, University of the West Indies, Barbados
CHAIRPERSON: Basil Kings
REACTOR: Robert Nicholson

END OF THIRD DAY

THURSDAY - AUGUST 29

9.00 - 10.30 a.m. PAPER 13

The Instructional Process in Educational Administration. The Case Methods Approach.
SPEAKER: Gwendoline Williams, University of the West Indies, Trinidad
CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Jotham Olembo
REACTOR: Dr. Dave Marshall, Nipissing University College, North Bay, Canada

10.30 - 10.55 a.m. B R E A K

11.00 - 12.30 p.m. PAPER 14

Training of Administrators in Rural Saskatchewan
SPEAKER: Dr. Larry Sackney, University of Alberta, Canada
CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Olga James-Reid

A F T E R N O O N F R E E

END OF FOURTH DAY

F I N A L D A Y

FRIDAY - AUGUST 30

9.00 - 10.30 a.m.	PAPER 15
	Critical Issues in the Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas SPEAKER: Earle H. Newton, University of the West Indies, Barbados CHAIRPERSON: Dr. Robin Farquhar REACTOR: Dr. Leonard Shorey, University of the West Indies, Barbados
10.30 - 10.55 a.m.	B R E A K
11.00 - 12.00 p.m.	Future Directions in Educational Administration in Developing Areas SPEAKER: Dr. Meredydd Hughes, University of Birmingham Birmingham, England CHAIRPERSON: Esperanza Tomlinson
12.00 - 12.30 p.m.	RECOMMENDATIONS
12.30 - 1.00 p.m.	C L O S I N G R E M A R K S

THE CARIBBEAN SOCIETY FOR EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATORS

CARSEA, BARBADOS

CARSEA (Barbados) was founded in May 1977, and is concerned mainly with the professional development of its members. Its membership comprises--management and administrative personnel from primary, secondary and tertiary institutions and the Ministry of Education in Barbados.

CARSEA's objectives include

- fostering a cooperative relationship among administrative personnel from the Ministry of Education, educational institutions at primary, secondary and tertiary levels, and teachers' professional organisations;

- helping educational administrators to identify and investigate their problems and publish the results of their research;

- conducting seminars, workshops and courses for educational administrators;

- encouraging and developing the process of evaluation in the education system of Barbados.

In March 1982 CARSEA was affiliated to the Commonwealth Council for Educational Administration (CCEA), with whom it is proud to be co-sponsoring this symposium on "The Professional Preparation and Development of Educational Administrators in Developing Areas with emphasis on the Commonwealth Caribbean during tne week, August 26-30, 1985.